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BY

IVOL SPAFFORD

Curriculum Consultant

SECOND EDITION

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TO

MY FATHER AND MOTHER

My First Teachers

INTRODUCTION

Teaching has been thought of as dull and teachers as people to be pitied. Teaching has been dull sometimes, and teachers frequently have been people to be pitied—but no more so than lawyers or doctors, merchants or farmers, or people in any vocation who were not finding fulfilment and lasting joy in their work. No other profession, with the exception of homemaking itself, offers the possibilities for personal satisfaction to the person engaged in it that are to be found in teaching. And home economics teaching, dealing with the problems of personal and home living, offers an opportunity far beyond that given to teachers in other fields.

Home economics began as a special subject. Thoughtful persons today both in and outside the field realize that it has values for all ages—children in the elementary grades, youth in the secondary schools, adults in and out of school. These persons are working to make it a part of the education of all within the school, at the same time minimizing in no way its special values for a smaller number.

Early programs of home economics teacher education emphasized special methods as though the values within home economics were to be secured in ways different from those in other fields. Devices were stressed, techniques emphasized, patterns learned to be used on the job. Teachers in service and those directing teacher-educating programs have come to realize that such a point of view is unsound. With this realization has come a growing appreciation that teaching in any field must stem from a general philosophy of education and must build on sound educational principles, if learning is to be effective over a period of time or useful in a wide variety of situations. They have also become increasingly conscious that the teacher must acquire in her pre-service training a zeal for and the tools of learning in order that her growth will be a continuous process like that of the students she teaches.

The philosophy of education proposed here sees an educational program as worth while only as it provides conditions for and promotes the continuous growth of the individual in all areas of living, with a view to achieving and maintaining the democratic way of life. Home economics has worth only as it is used in attaining this broad purpose. In working to achieve this purpose, however, home economics, has its own unique values, values of greater potential worth than those of any other field today. The needs of students and the needs of the community and the larger society form the basis for planning the educational program. Attention focuses on achieving behavior patterns and abilities needed for democratic living. Progress in learning is to be measured by the way in which the learner meets life situations.

The home economics teacher who measures up to the demands of such a program sees home economics as having value in her personal living and sees teaching as a medium for self-realization. She is a growing teacher, alert to opportunities for personal and professional development. She meets new situations with open-mindedness, is able and willing to change her point of view, her ideas of values, her standards of achievement, as new experiences come to her and as social conditions demand new answers to life problems.

It is hoped that the student preparing to teach will use this book as source material in solving problems, that she will find it helpful in arriving at a philosophy of education, and that she will continue to find it of value throughout her teaching. It is to be hoped that the teacher already in service will use it in re-evaluating her philosophy of education and in reconstructing her ways of teaching, that she will continue to turn to it as new problems arise, and that she will not think of it as a book to be read and laid aside.

Although the philosophy of education and the fundamental principles of education remain the same, this new edition of *Fundamentals in Teaching Home Economics* is more than a revision of the previous book. The philosophy itself has been restated with special emphasis on the responsibility of the school and on the opportunities within home economics to educate for the democratic way of life. Special attention has also been given to

the newer emphasis on personality development and personal adjustment and to the results of various studies concerning adolescence. These changes in point of view and new knowledge have resulted in a rewriting of much of the book as well as in the addition of new material in several places.

IVOL SPAFFORD

JUNE *1, 1942*

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CHAPTER I

THE CHALLENGE OF HOME ECONOMICS

Educators everywhere today—home economists, school administrators, curriculum workers, and teachers in other fields—are asking themselves what are the real values in home economics, what purposes can it best serve in the educational program of the future? The answers to these questions are of vital concern to all who would build a rich and worth-while program of education, to general educators and laymen as well as to home economists. They are of even greater concern to those being educated, the boys and girls, young men and women, now in school and yet to be in school.

Secondary schools, as a whole, have only begun to see the worth of a functional approach to education, and to recognize the importance of home-life education as a major objective at that level. As schools shift their emphasis from subject matter *per se* to activities of everyday living, home economics faces an unusual opportunity to enrich the whole school program. The extent to which it does this lies largely in the hands of those within the field. The responsibility is not theirs alone. To them, however, the larger field of education is looking for vision and leadership.

The Field of Home Economics

Home economics is a rich field, richer in potential values for developing a functioning program than any other field today.[1] Home economics is concerned with all that affects immediate personal and family living—the feeding, clothing, and housing of the individual and the family, the management of resources, the development and care of children, the protection of health, the care of the sick, and the everyday social relationships of people. With the increasing interdependence of individuals and families, the

[1] For a more detailed discussion of the field, see Ivol Spafford, *A Functioning Program of Home Economics*. Chapter I, "The Meaning of Home Economics." John Wiley and Sons. 1940.

social, political, and economic conditions which affect their living have become of increasing interest to home economics.

To enumerate these various aspects, however, is not enough. Other fields can and do draw on them for teaching experiences. A field achieves educational significance only as the uniqueness of its contribution is recognized and used. *The uniqueness of home economics lies first of all in its concern for family living.* Home economics grew out of an interest in family welfare, and this interest has controlled its development throughout. *Its second claim to uniqueness lies in its unifying of knowledge from many fields in the solving of personal and home-life problems.* To feed a family successfully, to plan the wise use of resources, to select a house to meet the needs of all the family demand knowledge from many fields. *Its third unique contribution is its personalizing of instruction.* Home economics began with an interest in the individual problems of students, in helping them to have a more wholesome diet, to dress becomingly, and to assist with the work at home. This interest in the personal needs of students continues today. *Its fourth claim to uniqueness lies in its emphasis on acquiring techniques and skills of living.* Home economists have always been concerned that students learn the skills necessary for meeting situations of everyday living, seeing these skills more broadly as the field itself has been enriched and broadened.

Purposes of Major Concern to Home Economics

All education has broadened and enriched its purposes in recent years. Each home economics program must set its own objectives. These objectives, however, should stem from an understanding of the larger purposes which home economics may serve and an evaluation of them in relation to a particular situation. *The achieving of a satisfying and functioning philosophy of life with emphasis on personal and family living should be set as the primary purpose of home economics*—provide the foundation for all the teaching. A worth-while philosophy is based on the belief that homemaking is important, holding a challenge to develop the greatest ability an individual has. It calls for an appreciation of values, a recognition that making a successful home demands

skills no less important than those required for building a successful business, even though different; that achievement is measured by the happiness within the group; and that real wealth is not evaluated in material gain. Home economics is rich in opportunities for students at every level to face realistically what they and their families want most out of life and to determine whether they can or are willing to pay the cost of attaining these things.

The developing of a wholesome personality and the working out of satisfying human relationships is the second broad objective which concerns home economics. Achieving sound mental health is one of the newer purposes set up for education. Home economics offers a wide range of experiences which will help students in understanding themselves and other people better and in acquiring techniques and skills which make for happier social adjustment and greater joy in living.

The broadening and enriching of life is the third large objective of interest to home economics. No other offering—if the home economics program is thoughtfully planned—opens the door to such a variety of experiences, holds such potential worth in discovering and meeting individual needs, interests, and capacities. Those people who fear that home economics students may not receive a cultural education, should bear in mind that true culture depends upon the quality and extent of a person's at-homeness in the world in which he lives. It is marked by keen sensitivity, broad understanding, and deep appreciations. Home economics is rich in experiences having cultural value. Those who are interested only in narrow specialization, who object to spending time and effort on anything not immediately and narrowly useful as they see it, who close their minds to opportunities to widen their horizons, will not find home economics a cultural field. The fault, however, lies not with home economics but with the students and with those who are satisfied to teach from such a limited point of view.

The acquiring of techniques and skills needed in immediate personal and home living, learning to use one's resources to attain the values set up as most worth while in life, is the fourth major objective which concerns home economics. No one is born knowing how to live happily with other people, to select nutritive food, to dress becomingly, to make a livable home, or to care for and

guide the development of little children. Feelings of self-confidence and security increase as adjustment to the environment and mastery of the maintenance aspects of living increase. Each culture makes certain skills more important for its members than others. No list of techniques to be learned as ends in themselves should be set up by home economists at either the high-school or college level. Those techniques of greatest worth at a particular time will depend upon the needs and interests of the people being educated.

The finding of one's relation to and place in the vocational world and preparing for it is the fifth major purpose of importance to home economics. Students in home economics should come to know themselves better—their assets and liabilities for employment—as well as the job demands of many different occupations. The field has much to offer in increasing the general employability and job satisfaction of all young people. Many types of occupations grow out of home economics, some of a semi-skilled type, others of a highly professional nature. Any girl interested in working in the field should have no difficulty in finding in it a type of activity suited to her interests and abilities and in which she will be successful and happy.

These are not separate purposes to be achieved one by one, nor will home economics be the only field to contribute to their attainment. Rather they are purposes which should run through all education and through all home economics teaching. Nor should they be seen as purposes of the student out of relationship to the family group or the larger society in which he lives. Because of its unique characteristics, home economics has a special contribution to make to acquiring them. The specific nature of the contribution within a particular school will be determined by the school.

Home Economics Offerings Today

Teaching is functional only to the extent that those people who study within a field find use for and make use of their learning. Home economics has much fine work to its credit. High-school girls have learned to feed their families well-balanced, attractive meals at low cost. They have made nicely styled and becoming

clothes to replace ill-fitting and drab-looking garments. They have become more interested in their personal appearance and in personality development. Some have changed from sallow-skinned, stoop-shouldered girls to rosy-cheeked, well-poised young women. The load caused by sickness and poverty has been lightened; the lowered family morale caused by unemployment has been built up. Inexpensive, wholesome recreation has been provided. Houses have been remodeled, furniture refinished, and rooms redecorated. Grounds have been made more sanitary. Grassy terraces and flowering shrubs have replaced gullies and water holes. Students have learned to use their resources in getting the things they want most out of life, to get their money's worth when buying goods and services. Their confidence in themselves has grown as they have acquired the techniques of living—those of human relationships as well as the physical aspects of living.

A study of family relationships has brought about better understanding between adolescents and their parents, between older boys and girls and their younger brothers and sisters. Family unity has been strengthened, family goals have been agreed upon, and family members have learned to work and play together through participation in the everyday affairs of the home. A desire to engage actively in community life has grown out of an appreciation and understanding of the interdependence and interrelatedness of family and individual well-being and community welfare. Ideals of home living and homemaking have been developed to be carried over into homes of their own in later years.

Home economics long ago ceased to be a classroom subject. Many teachers are employed beyond the school year; a large number supervise home experiences of students. Teachers go from front gate to kitchen, cellar to garret, with the utmost freedom. Mothers and girls have been glad that someone cared how they were living and what they were doing. In every section of the country are homes with changed living conditions and a more satisfying family life because daughters, and sometimes sons, have studied home economics and have seen how the things learned at school could be applied at home. Homelike departments have been built and furnished. Play schools have been added in a number of places, nursery schools in a few.

Boys have entered home economics classes in increasing numbers in recent years. They have learned to understand themselves better and to live more happily with family members. Many have learned to select nutritive food, to dress becomingly, and to spend their money more wisely. They have been much interested in manners and social conduct and in the growth and development of little children. Their increased understanding and appreciation of family life and of homemaking problems have enabled them to face homemaking as adults with greater poise and self-confidence. They like the work they have had and many have asked for more instruction extended over a longer period of time.

A few high-school home economics departments have offered specific training for wage-earning. Others are studying the problem preparatory to introducing pre-employment training. Of value to a still larger number of students is the attention being given to increasing the general employability of youth of both sexes. Knowledge about personal health, good grooming, and becoming clothing is making for healthier, better appearing, and happier workers. A study of planned spending and personal financing is contributing to greater thoughtfulness in the use of money. Practice in the techniques of social adjustment leads to better adjustment on the job.

The Challenge to the Teacher

Home economics offers a challenge to the home economist both as a person and as a teacher. The first challenge is to use the values in home economics to make her own life rich and satisfying; the second, to develop a school program which makes the best possible use of its potential values—a program built always in the light of the needs of the particular group to be taught and the needs of society.

Home economics should hold for the teacher the same values that it promises to hold for those she would teach. Most teachers will find it worth while to single out the values they see in home economics—values in developing ideals of happy, wholesome personal and family living; in achieving satisfying human relationships; in broadening interests; in meeting needs for food and

clothing and housing; in using money and time and energy wisely; in protecting and caring for health; in orienting to and preparing for the world of work. Each should then check herself as to changes in ideals, attitudes, appreciations, habits, techniques, and skills which she can credit directly to learning within the field. This might be a list of values such as the teacher would use to convince an unusually skeptical superintendent that he should establish a home economics department in his school or that bright girls as well as those with less academic ability should take home economics. Such an experience should throw some light on the truth of the statement oftentimes made that too many college students study home economics to teach it; too few to use it.

Only as home economics teachers live home economics will they show their faith in the values in the field. A school superintendent said recently, "Before I recommend a teacher to my board for employment, I want to visit her in her home, to see what home economics has done for her and her family." He then added, "We expect the teacher to teach the kind of home economics our students can use, and the best way that I know to insure this is to find out if she has learned the kind that she herself can and does use." Some home economics teachers would no doubt be disturbed if their next job depended upon the use they had made and were making of home economics in their personal and family living. Should they be?

Four major challenges face home economists as teachers: to see home economics in the light of the larger purposes of education and of basic social needs; to evaluate the present offerings; to enrich and broaden the work now given; and to extend the program to more people and over a longer period of time. Home economics grew out of a great social need, the recognition by social-minded women that many girls were not learning within the home the skills they needed to feed, clothe, and house their families. Home economics has changed through the years with new knowledge in art and science, social science and psychology; with changes in the larger society; and with a new concept of the purpose of education. The desire today to build a more functioning program of education concerned with everyday living offers home economics an opportunity to become a part of the basic curriculum

of all students—an opportunity such as it has never had before. Social changes and a clearer understanding of social needs and the responsibility of education to meet these needs also make new demands. People profess to believe in democracy in the midst of undemocratic practices. These practices exist in the home, the school, and the neighborhood as well as in relationships between states and nations. People know none too well how to manage their resources; to feed, clothe, and house themselves; to protect and care for their health. They have thought through none too clearly the ideals of family living which mean most to them. They care and have cared all too little about how others live. They know all too little about the conditions which are responsible for inadequacies in social and material living or about their responsibilities for them. Today's needs challenge home economists to think together about the larger purposes which home economics may serve.

The second challenge to home economists is that they look critically at their present offerings. The teacher who has real faith in the field will not be afraid to do this. There is much of worth in what has been done. It seems safe to say that, if the richest and most fruitful offerings could be brought together wherever they are given and whether in units of work or special activities, they would include examples of most if not all that needs to be done or that home economists could ever hope to do. This cannot be done, although recent literature offers many suggestions as to what is being and can be done. Teachers working together and teachers working alone need to study the individual offerings for both strengths and weaknesses. In appraising their offerings, teachers should study especially the relationship of home economics to the lives of those being taught, to their homes, the community, and the larger society; the classroom procedures as to the type of human relationships they foster; the teacher's place in the educative process; the activities provided for learning; and the manner in which learning is evaluated.

The third challenge to home economics teachers is to build home economics offerings that meet the needs of those being taught. This involves knowing the needs of students—needs which

have meaning only as the teacher becomes acquainted with her students as individuals and with their homes and the community. It means that each school will have its own program. It means further that provision will be made within the program for meeting individual needs and interests and for caring for differences in abilities and capabilities. Home economics as a field should set no subject matter or experiences as essential. The experiences of others, the materials built up by home economics, however, will provide a rich reservoir from which students and teachers will draw. As teachers know more of what others are doing, they will do a better job in developing the kind of program best suited to those they teach.

The fourth challenge is that the offerings of home economics be extended to more students and for a longer period of study. A recent study[2] of home economics in public high schools shows that 49 per cent of the girls and 1 per cent of the boys in slightly more than ten thousand high schools offering home economics were enrolled in home economics classes in the year 1938–1939. This study does not give information on how many students not then enrolled in home economics classes had had home economics. If these figures were available, the numbers would no doubt show some increase. Many students today, however, still have no direct contact with home economics instruction. In some cases this is because they do not see the value in such instruction and no one has shown it to them. In other cases it is because other things in their program crowd it out or because the school has no such offerings for them.

Home economics was introduced into the school program as a special subject, and therein lies its greatest emphasis today. Its offerings as a special subject are of two types: one for general, the other for vocational education. A common distinction is that a program is vocational if federally aided; general, if not so aided. Although the granting of federal aid for home economics has been largely responsible for developing vocational programs within the field, a more valid distinction would seem to be on the basis of

[2] *Home Economics in Public High Schools*, p. 5. Home Economics Education Series 24, Vocational Division Bulletin 213. U. S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency. 1941.

purpose. "The primary concern of general education is individual growth and development in the direction of enriching life in a democratic society, no specific materials which must be used in the education of any individual or group being selected in advance. Vocational education, on the other hand, must plan its program in keeping with the demands of the vocation. . . . A young woman may or may not need to learn food preparation, clothing construction, or the care of children as a part of her general education. Such learnings, however, may become very important as part of vocational programs of home economics."[3]

No thoughtful person would wish to discontinue home economics as a special subject. As such, its values for general education lie in meeting specific individual needs and interests along some special line or lines; for vocational education, in preparing for homemaking and for gainful employment. Offerings along all these lines should be extended, especially for wage-earning at the high-school level. There is much in home economics, however, which should be offered as general education as a part of the whole high-school program for both boys and girls.

The first concern of home economists in connection with the larger program of education is to promote an interest in and acceptance of education for immediate personal and family living in a democratic society as a major objective of the entire school. This is important today in both the elementary and secondary school. Other fields and other teachers have much to offer. Some are doing excellent work now. More needs to be done. A sound program can be developed, however, only as an entire school brings all its resources to bear on the problem. Responsibility for fostering such a program, for drawing out the best each field has to offer, and for getting each to carry its share of the load rests heavily on those in home economics. No other field has such a rich background of experience. No other field has been so long interested in such education. An increasing number of high schools is developing core programs. Home economists should make every effort to see that home-life education is included in the core offering and to assist in planning and teaching such courses.

[3] Spafford, *op. cit.*, p. 216. See also pp. 216-218, 246-249.

Home economics has much to offer to students in other courses and in other curriculums. Sometimes this service can best be rendered by helping other teachers plan units which they will teach and by supplying them with teaching materials; sometimes more will be accomplished by the home economics teacher's giving the instruction. Such assistance will be especially valuable in courses on consumer economics and in courses planned to increase the general employability and job satisfaction of those who would enter gainful employment. In some schools, home economics teachers have been made a part of the counseling staff or have been given homeroom assignments. Little attention has been given at either the elementary or college level to education for home living as a part of general education. Home economists should be interested in promoting and developing such education at both levels. Education for out-of-school youth and for adults has scarcely been touched. Home economics has many values for these groups.

As home economists make available the best thinking within the field both in planning the larger educational program and in setting up special home economics offerings, changes are to be expected at many places. In making changes, attention should be focused always on selecting the kind of experiences that will be most worth while for children and youth in their present living and in their preparing for future living. This should result in an extension of home economics offerings as well as in a shift of emphasis and an enrichment and broadening of content. This is desirable, not that home economics be preserved and extended for its own sake, but that the education of children and youth may be built on the best experiences of the past. A fundamental need of those who are growing up is to learn to live richly and generously in all the relationships of life. And of these, none is more important than immediate personal living or home and family life.

Home economics needs intelligent followers, those who will study what is being done in all phases of education, consider without personal bias the contributions being made in other fields, and use in home economics whatever is applicable and worth while. More than this, however, home economics needs pioneers, far-sighted and clear-thinking leaders, today as never before.

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CHAPTER II

A DYNAMIC PHILOSOPHY OF LIFE—AND OF EDUCATION

Whatever a person does, grows out of what he believes—the values which mean most to him. This is as true in teaching as in any other aspect of life. Differences in philosophies of education and in their interpretation account for differences in practices. Different periods in history have met their educational problems in different ways. At no time has there been complete agreement among either educational or lay persons as to the basic values in education or the ways in which they can best be achieved. Nor is there complete agreement today. New knowledge concerning the nature of man and how he learns, a reinterpretation of the democratic concept of human worth and social values, and the increased interdependence and interrelatedness of people have all had their influence on education.

To set up a philosophy is no easy task. To be of value it should be one's own, the outgrowth of personal experiences weighed against the experiences of other people. It should be a growing philosophy, never a finished piece of work. Ideas of values should change, the outlook on life and education should be modified and enriched as life goes on. Regardless of her open-mindedness to new ideas, the teacher needs to set guide lines against which to measure practices. They should represent the best ways of meeting situations as she sees them at that time. Neither a static philosophy nor one that changes with each new movement is to be desired.

To achieve a functioning philosophy, the teacher must arrive at answers to a number of basic questions. Some of these questions have to do with people—their nature and their needs and how they learn. Others have to do with social functioning—what the good society is and how it is to be secured and maintained. Still others have to do with the school—the scope of its job, the place of home economics, and the responsibility of the teacher.

The Purpose of Education

The way people live, the values they cherish and for which they are willing to work, and the success with which they achieve these values are the result of learned ways of behaving—learned through many experiences both in and out of school. The earliest education had for its purpose an imitative person. Life changed little, and education was training for and initiation into adult activities. Patterns were set by the elders and the children followed them, learning for the most part by working along with others who already knew how to weave and fish and till the soil. The early school supplemented the life of the neighborhood as an educational agency. Its primary purpose was to teach by rote learning the skills of communication and computation needed in everyday living.

The school has gone a long way since that simple beginning, has been assigned a wide variety of tasks, and has taken unto itself others. A major change, and an unfortunate one, as the work of the school expanded, was its almost complete divorcement from the everyday living of people. No school can serve as an important educational agency in an ongoing society, unless it finds its purpose in the educational needs of the group itself, needs which spring from the desires of the people who make up a society. The primary purpose of education in a democratic society should be to provide conditions for and to promote the continuous growth of the individual in all areas of living, with a view to achieving and maintaining the democratic way of life.

The person who would live successfully today must learn a great deal more than he would have needed to a generation ago; must orient himself to a life different from that of his parents in their childhood, and in many instances from that in which he grew up. Children find themselves surrounded by conflicting beliefs: schools giving instruction in the causes of disease and means of prevention, and parents opposing vaccination and the use of serums; parents demanding obedience from their children, and ignoring the laws and regulations that they have helped to make; teachers talking about the values of initiative and independence and insisting

upon pupil acceptance of teacher decisions. They see people who, having grown up believing that material wealth is the mark of success, that anyone who wanted a job could get it, and that men should be the main support of the family, are unable to adapt themselves to conditions that make such beliefs no longer universally true. They see lack of respect for personality all around them, people who would impose their will upon others by force. "Real education humanizes men. It does so, however, not by moulding them into unthinking acceptance of preëstablished patterns, but by stimulating them to a continuous reconstruction of their outlook on life."[1]

The person whose schooling is built on such a broad conception of the purpose of education should become an independent, resourceful, thinking individual whose acquaintance with his environment is broad enough to enrich his life and whose mastery of it is sufficient to solve his problems of living. He should be capable of continued growth in a changing society, adaptable when need arises, and able to adjust the environment when that would lead to greater happiness. Such a person should be able to set his own goals of behavior, make decisions as to conduct, and be willing to accept the responsibility for his actions. He should recognize that a truly democratic society seeks the maximum development of each individual in it. Such a person will be not only self-directing but also self-supporting. He will show his progress in reaching the objectives of education by the manner in which he meets his personal development and maintenance needs, home and family living problems, civic and social responsibilities, recreational interests, and vocational demands.

The Democratic Way of Life

Much of the conflict today—conflict between family members, employees and employers, religious and cultural groups, political parties and countries—centers in different ideas as to what makes up the "good life" and who shall enjoy it. Always there have been favored groups, those who have ruled, had wealth, or been edu-

[1] B. H. Bode, "The Confusion in Present-Day Education," p. 31. W. H. Kilpatrick and others, *The Educational Frontier,* Chapter I. D. Appleton-Century Company. 1933.

cated, in contrast to those who have been governed without representation, have lived in poverty and supported the wealthy by their labors, or been without education. Some people in every land and in every generation have been dissatisfied with their way of living and have worked to improve it. Two conflicting sets of values have controlled these attempts. One has been to improve life for a selected few and to improve it at the expense of other people; the other, to improve life for everyone. The founding of this country grew out of a desire to establish a political democracy by, for, and of the people. Democracy today is seen as a way of living together in all the relationships of life—the home, the school, the neighborhood, the world of work, as well as the state.

It is a truism to say that we live in a changing world. Man invents a printing press, and the records of his past experience are available for all who desire to read. The radio is perfected, and in cooperation with the press today's news circles the globe. The automobile is improved, good roads are built, and the word neighbor has changed in meaning. Looms for commercial purposes, large bake ovens, and canneries have been put into operation, and much of women's productive work has left the home. These changes have taken some women away from their children for many hours of the day and left others with very little to do. Textile mills move from east to south and a center of child labor is changed. Even as airplanes are being built for national defense, men are planning for the family airplane when the need for defense is over. No doubt such changes will continue and reshape a still new world for the next generation. Man cannot be educated to fit into his environment, for no one can predict with certainty what that environment will be.

Those people who believe in a democratic society would have life rich and generous and satisfying for everyone. They see each person as having worth, his individuality a priceless possession to be preserved and developed. There is to be no goose step in democracy, no society in which all think or act alike. They see people working together to encourage and promote group well-being in conjunction with individual welfare, the area of common concern constantly enriched and widened with new understanding.

Richness and fullness of life have meaning in a democracy only

as they are achieved by people themselves for themselves. No way of living planned by a benevolent autocracy or life of luxury and leisure provided by a fond parent or devoted husband will serve the purpose. No curriculum perfected by a teacher out of relationship to and without the cooperation of those to be taught will answer. Democratic living demands the free play of intelligence, the possession of the scientific attitude and zeal for and skill in using the techniques of reflective thinking. It demands access to what man already knows and the right to seek new and better answers. Differences are to be settled by peaceful means; changes, wrought by orderly procedures. Conference and compromise are the instruments for resolving conflicts; conference which seeks better understanding; compromise which desires the greatest and most lasting good for all.

The roots of democratic living lie in the beginnings of our culture. They lie also in the hopes of succeeding groups who sought a fuller life for themselves and their children in this country. That we have not realized such a society in its completeness has not caused us and should not cause us to lose faith in it. For some people today, perhaps for all of us, it means changes in many of our attitudes and habits, learning new ways of meeting old as well as new situations. No one is born with preformed bonds that insure democratic behavior, nor do the skills appear fully developed at any particular period in life. Success in achievement in the long run depends upon two factors: a belief in democracy as the way of the good life, and sufficient faith in its values to be willing to work wholeheartedly to attain it. There is no easy road and there are few short cuts. It is a continuous process of learning extending into ever-widening relationships. If people are to be led to accept and use the basic tenets of democracy as guides in controlling their own living, they must see democracy in action in many different situations, understand its meaning, participate in its processes, and evaluate its attainments. At its best, experience in democratic living begins in the home, extending with wider contacts into all areas of human relationships and continuing throughout life.

The individual who lives democratically is open-minded to new ideas, seeks the best answer always, avoids bias and prejudice in making decisions. He is tolerant of those who think and act differ-

ently from himself. It is, however, not the tolerance of a person who does not care or who accepts a "live and let live" philosophy. It is rather a tolerance that desires to understand other people and the values they cherish. Such a person works wholeheartedly to carry out the plans made and accepted by the group, whether of his choosing or not. He seeks freedom for himself and others through orderly procedures. He feels a responsibility for carrying his share of the work, for becoming master of himself and his environment. He has achieved a set of values to use as guides in directing his behavior.

The ideal society is one in which associated groups work together for the common good, promoting the welfare of the larger society even as it provides for the fullest development of each member of the group. This may mean special opportunities for those with special talents, partly in order that the individual may have his chance, and partly in order that all may have the benefit of the products of these talents. Such a society is always in the process of reconstruction. The individual is seen as an end in himself; not as a means to be sacrificed for another person or group. A democratic society delegates many of its tasks to individuals—sometimes to the expert, sometimes to those it elects to carry certain responsibilities. It, however, holds the way open for a reconsideration of its basic issues and for the seeking of a better solution to its problems or for a redelegation of responsibility.

In electing his course of behavior, each person determines the kind of society in which he wishes to live. Society in turn helps make him what he is. The reaching of a tentative conclusion as to the direction in which society should go becomes important as the basis for an educational program both for its effect on the individual and on the everchanging social order.

The Nature of Man and His Needs

Man is by nature dynamic. Response and stimulus are part of the same pattern differing only in their functions. "The reason why we speak of a stimulus at all is that the co-ordination or situation is *inadequate*; there is a drive or pressure towards a better

co-ordination or adaptation."[2] Students learn only that which they see as having meaning and value for them. Arousing the desire to learn is more important than many teachers realize.

The individual acts and reacts as a total being. There is no such thing as mental activity apart from physical or emotional activity. "This means that straight thinking is modified by crooked emotions, by pain, elation, low blood pressure or high, . . . that growth takes place throughout and altogether; . . . that those states of consciousness and types of activity which man respects most are bound indissolubly with those he thinks most mean and unimportant; that habit and novel response constantly interplay; that drill is affected by insight, and *vice versa*; that routine and creative response constantly interplay in all activity."[3] The child who does not have the rest or food he needs, who lives in an atmosphere of discord or insecurity, cannot give his best to the learning situation. Man not only acts as a unit but he has reached the place where he is through evolution. ". . . The refinement of conscious activity stems straight up without a break from primitive, instinctive, and immature behavior to conscious and purposive behavior. . . ."[4] No one can predict the heights that may be reached if man ever lives in a world which provides opportunities for his optimal development.

People are alike in many respects, but they are also different. Differences are due in part to original nature and in part to the environment. People differ in physical hardihood, in the original integrity of the tissues themselves—". . . mental characteristics depend on genes, in the sense that they are altered by substituting one gene for another."[5] Blood strain and ancestry do count. The tissues in their original make-up set upper limits to the capacity for mental development but the particular form of the development is not predetermined.

How near the individual will come to reaching his upper limits depends, however, upon the environment—". . . the gene can

[2] B. H. Bode, *How We Learn*, p. 230. D. C. Heath and Company. 1940.

[3] Lester Dix, *A Charter for Progressive Education*, p. 25f. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. 1939.

[4] *Ibid.*, p. 26.

[5] H. S. Jennings, *The Biological Basis of Human Nature*, p. 158. W. W. Norton and Company. 1930.

work only with the materials supplied by the environment and under conditions limited by the environment."[6] "A high I.Q. is, of course, an asset, but it is no guarantee . . . In other words, within limits, zealous interest will make up for a not too low I.Q."[7]

Man's fundamental needs are of three types. As an animal he needs to have activity and rest, to have food, and to reproduce. As a human, his needs are personal and social—their particular form conditioned by the culture in which he lives. Security is important to the individual—a security built partly out of confidence in himself and his ability to meet life and partly out of the knowledge that he holds an established place within his group. He needs also the opportunity for creative expression—to develop and express his own individuality, to be able to face reality, and to find a place for himself in a realistic world. The values which he cherishes and for which he is willing to work should be clear to him.

The individual is conditioned by his surroundings from earliest life, but there is no way as yet, and perhaps never will be, of knowing the dividing line between innate capacity and learned ways of behaving. This does not become a problem of serious import unless the teacher unconsciously sets up a line of demarcation. The field of modification is so great, the possibilities of growth so broad, that the limits have not yet been reached. The good teaching program provides for meeting individual needs and interests, fosters the discovery and development of individual talents.

The Way People Learn

Man not only lives as he has learned, but his survival depends upon his learning. Richness of life is only possible with continued learning. Man learns as a total organism, responding always with his mind and body and feelings. The learning pattern is broad.

[6] Gardner Murphy, Lois B. Murphy, and T. M. Newcomb, *Experimental Social Psychology,* p. 27. Harper and Brothers. 1937. Reprinted by permission of the publishers.

[7] W. H. Kilpatrick, "The Education To Be Sought." *Progressive Education,* 17:13. January, 1940.

Some things experienced only once are never forgotten; others repeated many times remain unlearned. "The essence of habit-formation is not repetition but smoothness of co-ordination."[8] Stimuli widely different may bring forth similar responses; stimuli much alike produce entirely different results. Learning on the higher levels depends upon the perception of relationships and the development of understanding. The intelligent person acts with a purpose, foreseeing ends before acts are carried out. He synthesizes his experiences into wider meanings and forms concepts. Through analysis he discovers their differences and thus learns to recognize the elements in situations.

The student learns what he experiences, not what he sees the teacher do or what she tells him to do. "This means that at any time the child learns *his* reactions, not what parent or teacher may wish or order; but what the child himself in his heart accepts as his way of thinking or feeling or deciding."[9] The goals the teacher holds must inevitably compete with those of the student when they are planned out of relationship to each other.

Learning takes place most rapidly and easily if the learner sees an immediate use for it which is important to him. It is valuable in proportion to its breadth and flexibility. "All learning, whether in school or out of school, has to do with the transformation of experience in the interests of better control"[10]—better control of one's own "inner living," better control of oneself in relation to the environment and in relation to other people. Worth-while appreciations, attitudes, and ideals grow out of rich experiencing. The school has a responsibility not only to widen the horizon, but to insure deeper understanding and enrichment of what has already been experienced.

Education and the Social Heritage

Man learns by experience, but he progresses in proportion as his experiencing is built on the socially valuable experiences of the race. Advancement from generation to generation comes from

[8] B. H. Bode, *How We Learn*, p. 249.
[9] W. H. Kilpatrick, *op. cit.*, p. 15.
[10] B. H. Bode, *How We Learn*, p. 245.

overcoming difficulties and from learning new ways of behavior and through the preservation in various forms of the progress of man. These changes are found in ways of living and earning a living, in forms of recreation, in different beliefs, ideals, and standards. They have made language. They have been preserved in books, pictures, music, architecture, roads, and bridges. Conditions of living on every hand are a result of what man has done to the environment. The social heritage is civilization itself.

Early civilization learned by doing. All the racial progress that concerned people was close at hand. The advance of a generation was represented by the shaping of a better tool, an improved way of making a roof, an easier way of preparing the soil. Children grew up familiar with these changes, and by imitation learned to use them. Book learning beyond mastery of the simple tools of living was a thing apart and for the few. It was learning for its own sake and not for its contribution in enriching the everyday life of the common man. With the advancement of civilization, individual ability, as a whole, has counted for less and socialization for more in the development of both the individual and society.

School learning will be rich and vital in proportion as it draws on man's past experiences in meeting today's problems. This will be neither subject matter taught for its own sake, however, nor the subject matter of books alone. Students should be led to respect knowledge, to appreciate the need for accurate information, and to evaluate the reliability of sources of data. The learning acquired should be organized in such a way that it can be used later. This, however, will frequently mean an organization different from that of the specialist—the only organization which has been taught in the past.

Using the social heritage in education means much more than learning facts or imitating a way of doing. The values and standards accepted by different social groups must be understood. The ability to meet new situations must be acquired. The present is always related to the past. Planning for the future must be predicated on the past as well as the future. Life to be rich and fruitful must have perspective; goals that are sound and worth striving for grow out of a long view of life. Learning for use in everyday living need be no narrow goal.

The Responsibility of the School

Society has delegated to the school the responsibility for educating its young. This entails both passing on to them the essential learning of the race and preparing them to live rich and satisfying lives in an ongoing society. The good school has many values. It selects and enriches the environment, eliminates the undesirable, and more nearly equalizes the opportunities for development. It brings within a building selected treasures from all parts of the world and from earliest recorded time to the present. The child whose home is barren of music, art, or literature, or who has low ideals of home and family life, is given access to the same experiences as children from more favored homes. The school can neither take the place of the home nor overcome all its deficiencies, but it can assist greatly in balancing experiences. It can also prepare the child to meet undesirable situations which cannot be changed, stand between the child and other agencies, and avoid adding to his maladjustment.

The school does not claim to increase native capacity and produce genius, but it can educate the common run of humanity in such a way that they will appreciate and use to advantage the results of genius. It can also arrange the materials selected for educational purposes according to the interests and achievements of the group. The school has a responsibility to educate for oneness of outcomes when such are personally and socially desirable. It has an equal responsibility to educate for different outcomes when individual and social needs and interests make this desirable. "The ideal school offers each student an environment where he feels at ease, where work presents a challenge that seems significant to the student, where he is confident that he has the ability to succeed, and where he feels that the teacher and his classmates regard him as having a personality worth knowing."[11]

The school has an obligation to society as well as to the child. Some within the school talk only of a teacher-pupil-planned cur-

[11] H. N. Rivlin, "The Evaluation of Personality Adjustments in the Classroom," p. 479. Paul A. Witty and Charles E. Skinner, *Mental Hygiene in Modern Education,* Chapter XVII. Farrar and Rinehart. 1939.

riculum. The school must of necessity be concerned with all that affects the welfare of the student. It need not take full responsibility for all education. It should, however, know what other agencies are doing which contributes to or interferes with its purpose and endeavor to secure their active cooperation in planning for and providing the type of education which children in a democracy need. Young people in the lower economic groups especially are bound by the conditions under which they are living. The school and the community have a peculiar responsibility for helping them break through to a better way of life.

Much is being said about the need for children to see democracy in action and to live democratically within the school. This is important but it is not enough. The school should consciously teach children the meaning of democratic living as they live it, in order that they may both understand it and want to practice it in all their relationships. The experiences children have should be worth while. To decide matters democratically can have little educational value if the experiences themselves are not worth having. Children have few illusions as to the real worth of what they are doing. The school responds readily to control. This may represent a serious danger. It means, on the other hand, that attitudes and habits considered socially worth while may quickly influence the work of the school.

The school has an obligation to itself. It should teach the real worth of education for the individual and for society. It should emphasize the need for organized learning as the basis for meeting satisfactorily the wide variety of situations that face individuals in present-day society. It should teach respect for knowledge, develop ability in making use of it, and develop skill in judging its reliability. It should seek to develop the desire to learn and to continue learning and to develop skill in using the techniques of learning. That real education has money value is an accepted fact. This money value, however, should be seen in proper perspective to its other values and not as a dollar sign pinned willy-nilly to each day in school, as some of our educational statisticians have told the public.

For many years the teacher controlled the life of the school. Recently there has been a shift to a child-society-centered cur

riculum in theory, with all too often an emphasis on the child and his casual interests in practice. There are many facets to the job of teaching. Primarily the job is seen today as one of guidance. That this guidance should be virile and dynamic rather than passive and colorless is frequently overlooked, however. In developing a philosophy of education, it is important for the teacher to think through her role in the educative process.

Two special problems face the home economics teacher: the first has to do with the broad values she sees in home economics for education as a whole; the second, with the values of greatest worth for the particular situation in which she is working. The point of view of those with whom she works will determine in part, but not entirely, the use of home economics within a school. Home economics has a contribution to make to education in all the basic relationships of life—personal living, home and family life, social-civic relationships, and vocational guidance and preparation. It has value as a special subject and as part of the core offerings. It may contribute to either vocational or general education.

The needs and interests of students, the needs of the home and community should provide the basis for building a home economics program. The goals set for education as a whole should furnish the criteria for determining the special uses to be made of the field in a particular situation. Home economics is a broad field, rich in potential values. The home economics teacher has a major responsibility to understand and weigh values and to see that they are considered thoughtfully in the building of an educational program.

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CHAPTER III

THE ROLE OF THE TEACHER

Final responsibility for what formal education means to students rests largely in the hands of the teacher. The teaching job is many-sided; the teacher's role has many facets. Basically the job is that of providing learning experiences which will promote the fullest growth and development of the individual student, the role that of an experienced leader and guide. Home economics is the teacher's medium for achieving the goals of education—goals which will be realized only as each teacher makes them the foundation of her own teaching. What the student learns in any course depends in part upon the learning experiences he has—the activities carried out; the subject matter studied; the knowledge, skills, and techniques emphasized as of greatest worth. His learning also depends upon the kind of person the teacher is, her adjustment to life, her relationships with pupils, and the learning she herself has.

The Scope of the Job

The job of teaching is not the teacher's alone, but the leadership in most instances rests with her. Students, parents, and others in both the school and community have a stake in the program and should help with setting it up and carrying it out. Planning learning experiences begins with the interpreting of the general objectives of education into home economics objectives, and these into behavior outcomes. The final goals of teaching are changes in ideals and attitudes and changes in behavior—new ways of looking at things, new ideas of values, ways of doing things not done before, better ways of doing things already known, new habits to replace unsatisfactory ones. A wide range of activities is available from which those experiences which are most worth while for attaining the objectives may be chosen. The same activity

may be so used as to achieve different learnings with different groups or different individuals. Making a dress may mean learning construction processes and nothing more or it may mean studying materials, design, and color, planning a costume, and constructing a dress. For some students it may mean growth in self-confidence; for others, better understanding of the problems parents face in rearing a family. For still others it may mean increasing their understanding of the social situation today and their desire to help in improving conditions. Desirable as it is that pupils assume increasing responsibility for selecting the activities which will give them the experiences they need, the teacher should see that many possibilities are considered before choices are made.

Learning experiences should finally be put into a working whole. The relative importance of different needs, the order in which to take up problems, the depth and breadth of study are all factors to consider in planning the teaching program. Spur-of-the-moment planning has no more of a place in teaching than have the plans which are followed without change from year to year. Many techniques may be used to achieve the purposes set up: field trips, demonstrations, reports, discussions, and group and individual work. Although no list of activities or body of subject matter should be planned in advance with the intention of using it in detail with a particular group, such planning, if flexible, has its value as a point of departure for the teacher.

Worth-while, usable plans represent up-to-the-minute thinking, centering in learning units of sufficient scope to be interesting and challenging to both teacher and pupils. Daily teaching to be valuable must have direction. Good teaching, however, has no place for the day's work planned as a unit in itself. A continuous thread should tie the day's work to the learning unit, and this in turn to the larger purposes of home economics and of education. Plans should state clearly the outcomes desired, the learning essential for achieving these outcomes, and the ways in which the learning is to be attained. Ways of pretesting to know where learning should begin and for measuring both the direction and progress being made should be included in the planning. Formal tests are important for certain types of measurement. Other types of learning can be measured best in regular classwork or home-

work. Pupils should help in the planning throughout so that they may know both the goals toward which they are striving and the ways in which growth may be measured.

Observing behavior in the unsupervised situation is an effective means of measuring progress in learning. Checking growth here —the care of clothing, habits of selecting food, attitudes toward family members—must be done informally. This may be done best by observation and with and by the pupils themselves. Success in this area represents real success in teaching. Other types of testing enable the teacher and pupils to note intermediate learning in attaining the larger goals. They should not be thought of as measuring ends valuable in themselves, however, but only the means of providing information which will lead to better teaching on the part of the teacher and more worth-while learning on the part of the students.

Home economics is taught through the use, care, and management of the department as well as through the class discussions and special activities carried out by the pupils. Inappropriate or too expensive furnishings and equipment, disorderly storage, careless handling of supplies, working without a financial plan may be more effective instruments for teaching than the problems discussed in class.

The home has always taught homemaking and will continue to do so. The home economics teacher should endeavor to build on the worth-while teachings of the home and secure its cooperation in the work the school is emphasizing. Pupils should be led to appreciate the work of their parents and the difficulties against which they have oftentimes struggled and to understand the real worth which frequently lies beneath unpolished manners and poor material surroundings. The life goals of many parents center in providing for their children a better opportunity than they had and in improving home conditions. Home economics teaching should contribute to the realization of both these aims, and parents who see these aims being achieved will become strong allies of the work. Home visiting acquaints the teacher with the family and with home conditions. Home experiences worked out under teacher guidance, however, should be only the beginning

of the pupil's use of home economics instruction in out-of-school living.

Education is being recognized as a continuous process. This entails two obligations for the teacher—one to teach in such a way that people will want to go on learning and will have the techniques for teaching themselves; the other, to assist in providing instruction for those who, until recent years, have been thought of as having finished their formal education. New information and new ways of doing things are constantly being worked out and should be made available to people no longer in the regular school. Teaching people who do not have to come to school and who will not come unless they see worth in what they are getting holds a special challenge. People who have seen home economics as a narrow field, who have not wanted their daughters to take it, or who have not been interested in a well-equipped, adequately supported department locally get a different notion of home economics as they attend adult classes.

Not only should the teaching be directed toward realizing the larger objectives of the school, but the home economics department should cooperate in its many activities. The elementary school children may need instruction in nutrition; the football boys may want help in planning a training diet; the Future Farmers organization may be interested in working on joint activities to improve rural home life. Sanitary conditions around the school may need improving; a restroom for the girls may be desirable. Experiences in other fields, if made use of, will contribute to better work in home economics. The school may have an excellent science department according to the usual standards, and yet the teacher may fail to tie up the teaching of science with home living because it has never occurred to him; the art department may be very good as to the basic principles taught, but the activities may have little relationship to the lives of students because the teacher does not know what those lives are. The agricultural and home economics departments may work together on problems of food production, distribution, and cost, rural housing, and more satisfying recreation. Cooperating with the parent-teacher association in health work with pre-school children, with a welfare agency in providing for destitute children, or with the

county health staff in holding a baby clinic may offer excellent opportunities for service. A program of work—a calendar of activities—should be planned by the teacher, showing in a systematic way the experiences she plans to use in achieving the objectives of the department. This should be a flexible program, however, to be adjusted as new conditions arise and indicate a need for change.

Much of the criticism made of education today is due to lack of understanding on the part of both the schools and the public. Oftentimes the public fails to appreciate the limitations of what the school can do or its own share in helping with the job of education. Frequently the school, on the other hand, has not studied sufficiently educational needs from a lay point of view nor taken into consideration the education being secured elsewhere. The students themselves know all too little of the large program of education. The same may be said of many teachers who know little more than what they themselves are doing. The teacher has a responsibility to see that home economics is not thought of as one of the frills of education, on the one hand, nor that its values are measured only as it teaches the skills of cooking, sewing, and housewifery, on the other hand.

Teacher-Pupil Relationships

A primary purpose of education is to help students learn to direct their own lives in ways personally satisfying and socially acceptable. To do this they need to learn to set goals, to plan and carry out plans, to foresee the results of different choices, and to be willing to accept the results of their choice making. To be helped in this type of learning, students should feel free to be themselves. No teacher can know the help a pupil needs unless he lives in an atmosphere in which he is not afraid to be himself. This does not mean that the teacher accepts all that he does as satisfactory or that she makes no effort to redirect his behavior. It has been said with a great deal of truth that some students study their teachers more than they study their lessons in order that they may give the teachers the kind of responses which the teachers want. Home economics teachers have sometimes blamed students

for saying that conditions at home were different from what they really were, when it was the teacher's attitude that was responsible for their answers rather than any real wish to be insincere on their part.

The classroom until recently has been a teacher-controlled situation. The school put a premium on pleasing the teacher and on accepting her decisions as to what should be done and her standards as to when work was well done. This usually meant setting the same goals for everyone regardless of individual interests, abilities, or talents. In the new relationship that teachers are trying to establish, the teacher is seeking a friendly, honest relationship between the pupils and herself and among the pupils. She endeavors to foster the growth of individual talents and to give recognition to individual abilities. Each student is to be accepted for himself, the teacher-pupil relationship at no time being used to establish and maintain the teacher's security.

In shifting from a position of sole authority to that of guide, the teacher still holds important responsibilities. Her maturity and experience do count. Only as she widens the horizons of students will they have a rich background from which to choose. They need her help in appreciating fully the scope of the activities they wish to undertake, in understanding the time and the new learning involved. Some teachers would manipulate the situation so that students choose to do what the teacher has already planned for them to do. The teacher's responsibility is rather to see that all aspects of a situation are considered, that pupils have the background for foreseeing the results of various courses of action, and that they are willing to carry through on the one they choose. The teacher should take the lead in creating a wholesome working atmosphere in which worth-while activities of vital concern to students may be carried out. This should always be appropriate to the activity itself. Pupils welcome an atmosphere in which they can work effectively when the things they are doing seem important to them. They, however, would like to help create their working conditions.

Democracy in the classroom is sometimes interpreted as meaning that pupils should help in making all decisions. Such an interpretation has no validity in teaching. Where growth is an

important outcome, as it is in the school, pupils must grow in ability to make decisions. They should then neither be burdened beyond their ability to carry through nor be asked to assume responsibilities which cannot rightly be delegated to them. To reach a little further than their present grasp, to have a chance to be successful with reasonable effort, to fail sometimes because of carelessness or overconfidence, is quite different from having to assume responsibility for helping to decide all that affects them. Whenever responsibility is given, however, the teacher should be sincere in letting student decisions be final. Whenever responsibility is assumed, students should be equally sincere in carrying through. They should learn that privileges have corresponding duties and that the former is not to be had without the latter. The previous school experiences of students may make it desirable for a teacher to make more decisions than she wishes. Students who have had no experience in working out their own curriculum or in planning classroom activities may become as badly maladjusted in an atmosphere of too much responsibility as in the teacher-centered situation. A shift in responsibility should be gradual.

The nature of home economics materials, the informality of home economics teaching, and the home contacts of the teacher offer unusually fine opportunities to work out wholesome teacher-pupil and pupil-pupil relationships. An important conclusion, growing out of recent experimental work at the high-school level, has been the great need of adolescents to know some one within the school well and to have some one know them well. Home economics offers a most favorable medium for developing this close relationship.

Personal Characteristics of the Teacher

The school administrator, seeking a new teacher, wants more than scholarship. Sometimes he has a good teacher in mind and wants another with the same qualities. Sometimes his approach is negative. He sees certain qualities as producing a misfit in his situation and is more concerned in avoiding these undesirable qualities than in securing other good ones. Studies have been

made to find out the characteristics of successful and unsuccessful teachers. Teacher-educating institutions have prepared lists of qualities considered desirable for success in teaching and used these in evaluating the growth of students and in determining their strong and weak points.

One thing seems certain—and that is that there is no pattern of characteristics which guarantees success in teaching nor one which inevitably leads to failure. The qualities which people like most in other people, as a whole, are those they like in teachers; those they dislike in people, in general, they dislike in teachers. Because of the relationship of teachers to the young and immature, because of the large number they may influence, and because students have few ways of escaping from the teacher they dislike, the importance of desirable qualities in the teacher is of greater moment, however, than in people holding other jobs, unless it be that of parenthood.

Comments made by people about teachers they have especially liked always bring forth such statements as: is friendly with everyone, is interested in students, is fair in her dealings, has no favorites, is sympathetic and understanding, has poise, has a zest for living, enjoys teaching, likes her field, has a pleasing voice, is well groomed, dresses becomingly, has a sense of humor. The superintendent usually asks especially about appearance, voice, interest in people and in teaching, common sense, judgment, health, ability to get along with people, business ability, cleanliness, and orderliness. Statements about the qualities which people have most disliked in teachers have been: is sarcastic, is too dictatorial, is lazy, is not interested in teaching or in people, does not know her field, has favorites, cannot be depended upon, is unattractive in appearance, has a bad temper, has an unpleasant voice, is high-strung, is sickly.

Nearly everyone knows or has known a good teacher who has some of these undesirable traits—is sarcastic, quick-tempered, careless in appearance, reserved with students, in not too good health, inclined to have favorites. It is doubtful if anyone knows a good teacher who is lazy, does not know her field, or dislikes teaching. What the run-of-the-mill teacher sometimes overlooks is that the exceptional teacher is good in spite of and not because

of these undesirable traits. She has enough good qualities, or a few good qualities to such a high degree that they more than outweigh the undesirable ones. No one would advise the person who aspires to greater success to cultivate a sarcastic manner although he might advise her to be more friendly or to show a greater personal interest in students.

The encouraging aspect of the situation is that good qualities may be learned and undesirable ones made less prominent or replaced by more desirable ones. This is possible even for the person who has taught many years if the desire to change is present. The personal qualities the teacher now has are the result of learning. Many teachers need only to look at themselves objectively to see traits they would like to change. Some, however, need help in getting at the sources of their difficulties, difficulties which lie below the surface. They may have built up defenses or rationalized their behavior over a long period of time, wholly unaware of what they are doing and of how their behavior appears to other people. Colleges are increasingly concerned about the personal adjustment and personality traits of their students. Many have devised ways of getting acquainted with the students and of helping students get acquainted with themselves early in their college careers with a view to building a more wholesome and better-balanced personality.

Personal Adjustment of the Teacher

More important than any particular characteristic or trait as a factor in success, however, is the teacher's total life adjustment. Only as she is herself well adjusted can she hope to have fine, wholesome relationships with students. Nor are the characteristics of a well-adjusted teacher any different from those of any other well-adjusted person. Satisfactory adjustment is simply more important for the teacher. The well-adjusted person feels secure in his world—a security born of a feeling of belongingness and of having confidence in himself. By the very nature of teaching, it is extremely important that the teacher see worth in herself. The pupils look to her for guidance and leadership. They expect her to be master of the situation. The teacher who lacks confidence in

herself finds the teaching situation in which she holds the position of sole authority an excellent way of getting a feeling of security. She feels important as she tells the pupils what to do and sets standards for achievement. The only certain way for the teacher to get security in the long run, however, is for her to become master of herself and of some area of her field, even though small in the beginning. She will then win a place for herself with her students and will have the beginning of a faith in herself which is of lasting worth.

A second characteristic of good adjustment is the ability to face and the habit of facing realistically the world in which one lives. This means life guided by a philosophy that has been set in terms of achievable and desirable goals. The teacher must know herself and be able to see herself in the world in which she lives. The lives of many people are made wholly unreal by wishful thinking and by constant rationalization of their own behavior. They place the blame for their actions on incidents outside their control, which may or may not be true. In either case, the individual must still face the situation and work out the best possible adjustment.

The points at which many women teachers—home economics teachers perhaps more than others—find themselves in conflict with reality have to do with standards for material living and marriage. A good deal has been said and is being said about the low salaries of teachers and especially women teachers. Certainly anything that can be done to increase family and individual money income as a whole should be done. However, when one realizes that 65 per cent of the families in this country in 1935-1936 had an annual income of $1500 or less, not including those families on relief,[1] it is not so easy to get concerned about the low salaries of teachers as a class alone or of home economics teachers as a special group. An aspect of the problem which causes special difficulty for some home economics teachers is that oftentimes their home economics experiences at the college level have resulted in the setting of high standards for material living—standards which they find difficult to realize on the salary they can reasonably expect to have. These teachers know good mate-

[1] National Resources Committee, *Consumer Incomes in the United States*. August, 1938.

rials and good workmanship in ready-to-wear garments, good finish and design in furniture, good fabrics in house furnishings and these cost money, more money than they have. They expect their teaching to increase the resources of the families whose children they teach—families having no more and often less money income than they have. Frequently, however, they have failed to face the fact that their superior schooling has increased their wants without increasing either their resourcefulness in meeting them or their ability to weigh values and organize their life into a harmonious and orderly whole.

The second point at which women teachers often fail to face reality has to do with marriage. It should be recognized that many communities also fail to face reality at this point, although in a different way. Certainly there is nothing in the nature of teaching that demands that success for the woman teacher is dependent upon her remaining unmarried. In fact some of those qualities, which have led to the title of "school marm" used in a derogatory sense, stem largely from the unnatural lives which teachers of both sexes have lived in the past. Women teachers should be able to look forward to marriage and family life as any other women. The decision as to whether marriage shall end a woman's gainful employment temporarily or permanently should be made by the new family in so far as marriage is a factor. The quality of her teaching and those factors directly effecting it should be the only basis for concern on the part of the employing officers. There are, however, two other aspects to the problem from the point of view of the teacher. Many teachers would like to quit teaching when they marry, or so they say. The standards they have set for living, however, keep them in teaching and they are unhappy there. The other aspect of the problem centers around the fact that many women teachers who would like to marry do not do so. In certain respects it may be harder for the home economics teacher to give up having a home and family than for other women teachers. Her interest in family life oftentimes was the determining factor which took her into the field. A goodly number of home economics teachers are none too happy or successful in their work because they have never faced frankly how to live happily

as single women. This is unfortunate both for them and for those whom they teach.

A third characteristic essential to good adjustment is that the individual achieve healthy relationships with those with whom she lives and works. For the teacher, they include the students, the community, fellow teachers, and those in authority. To be accepted by the students because of what she does and not because of what she is—a teacher—is not always easy for either the teacher or the pupils. The same may be said of the teacher in relationship to those in supervisory or administrative relationship to her. Many teachers become so engrossed in their own work that they overlook the commonness of purpose of all those within a school situation. They lead a sort of lone-wolf existence around the school. Wholesome relationships demand that teachers maintain their own individuality, however, that they develop their own creative abilities and peculiar talents at the same time that they foster a commonness of purpose with those with whom they are working.

A fourth characteristic of the well-adjusted person is that she is emotionally mature. This means that she can stand alone, that she can take whatever happens. Essential in achieving emotional maturity is the bringing of all aspects of one's life into an integrated whole. The ability to face reality is an important factor in achieving such integration. Teaching by its very nature presents certain hazards. The teacher, working constantly with the young and immature, may build a dependence—even though unconsciously built—which is not good for either the pupils or herself.

Teachers to be happy must live well-balanced lives. Most teaching jobs demand much of the teacher. There is no end to the worthy enterprises that may engage a home economics teacher's time: a full teaching load, home visiting, adult classes, home economics club, membership on this and that committee both in and out of school. Pressures from the community are many. The school, the church, civic clubs, welfare agencies, would each add one more activity to an already overcrowded schedule. Harmonious, orderly living which offers fulfilment to the teacher and worth-while service to others should be the goal of every teacher-educating program and of every teacher or would-be teacher. This

means choice making within the work job itself, deciding what are the most important things for the teacher to do and what shall be left undone. Some teachers are so burdened with their teaching responsibilities that they have no time to develop real warmth and friendliness in their relationships with pupils. More careful planning may result in getting more done. It should be recognized that some teachers like a feeling of pressure. Some accept responsibilities they know they cannot carry out. They haven't the will to say no, or they like the feeling of being, nominally at least, a part of a wide variety of enterprises. Sometimes the pressure of school work is due to spending too much time on trivial things, details that have become habitual but which should be reevaluated with new demands. Within the job itself, every teacher should save some time for creative activity, for experimentation, for trying out new procedures.

Life is more than the job, however. A balanced program for living demands that the teacher have other interests and other contacts, that she play as well as work, that she participate in community life, have recreational and avocational outlets, have normal relationships with family members and friends. No pattern is to be set for teachers in general or for home economics teachers in particular. A teacher's own needs and interests should determine those activities which make life rich and vital for her. The work job should be a part of life itself not something apart from life—a way of earning a living only. "This does not mean that you should slight your teaching in order to do some vague, exciting thing called 'living a full life.' Rather it means that your whole existence must make one rich pattern in which your hobbies, your home life, and your job have each a meaningful place."[2]

Most of those who teach or plan to teach are sincerely interested not only in teaching but in teaching home economics. A few, who have drifted into teaching, find no real satisfaction in it. A teacher to be successful must find real joy in her work and make school a joyful and worth-while experience for those who study with her. She needs to be proud that she is a teacher and to take pride in the field in which she works. No teacher can be really happy who is ashamed of what she is doing. Teachers are not born, but many

[2] Henry W. Simon, *Preface to Teaching*, p. 44. Oxford University Press. 1938.

characteristics making for success and happiness in teaching are developed early. There is little excuse for misfits in home economics teaching. The person who likes home economics but does not like teaching may find many other openings in the home economics field.

Knowledge and Skills the Teacher Needs

It should go without saying that the teacher who is successful will have a broad and sound background in the subject matter she is to teach. The home economics teacher cannot hope to know all the material of her field, but she should know well that material which is basic to those aspects which she will teach. She should also know *when* she does not know and how to study in the field. She should have access to reliable sources of information and have sufficient interest and enthusiasm in her field to continue her study—study not always to be carried out in books. It will be difficult to convince students that a subject is worth studying if the teacher is not continuing to study in it herself.

To know one's field is not enough, however. The successful teacher, moreover, knows how to teach and has skill in teaching. She knows how people learn and that not all learn in the same way. The teacher may need to provide different mediums for different pupils even when commonness of outcomes is desired. Differences in needs and interests will without doubt call for different experiences. How and when to use demonstrations, field trips, a movie short, a panel discussion, individual or group work are matters of judgment as to the best procedure to use, on the one hand, and of skill in using the procedure, on the other. Some of this learning about teaching will be acquired in special courses set up for this special purpose and in directed-teaching experiences. Some of it will be learned unconsciously by the teacher from the ways in which she was taught. Other learning will come from her own teaching experiences, from observation and contact with other teachers on the job and through in-service study.

Teaching is also a matter of relationships between people. The teacher needs, then, to know people—the needs and interests of different age groups as well as the individual students with whom

she works. Recent youth studies will give her insight into the problems young people face today and their attitudes toward life. Her own students will have their peculiar needs and interests. Concern for the individual is one of the most significant changes in education in recent years. For this to be more than verbalization, the teacher must know a great deal about people and be skilful as well in arriving at a common understanding with those with whom she works.

A changing society makes its demands upon the educational program and the work of the individual teacher. To know the individual as a person is only one side of the picture. For education to be functional, the program must be built on knowledge about and understanding of the social situation today and the trends which are most likely to make society different in the immediate future. The gainful employment of women, the longer life span, the decreased birth rate, the mobility of people, the increasing divorce rate, the change from a making-a-living to an earning-a-living economy, the threat to democracy, are only a few of the changes which are profoundly affecting family life. The successful teacher of home economics must continuously study social change and its implications for personal and family living and for home-life education.[3]

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[3] See also Chapter XXIV, "The Growing Teacher."

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CHAPTER IV

THOSE WE TEACH

Until recently home economics focused attention largely on high-school girls. More and more, however, other groups are being drawn into the program. Today many boys are enrolled in home economics. Studies of young adults point to their need for home-life education. Older adults in increasing numbers are to be found in study groups, and a few schools provide work for elementary children. A functioning program can be built only as the teacher understands both the age group and the individual students with which she deals. An understanding of adolescents as the group which concerns most home economics teachers is especially important.

Growth during Adolescence

Human growth takes place altogether, each person having his own rate and pattern of development. In spite of this variability, an understanding of the general characteristics of adolescent growth will provide the background for studying the individual student, will point to both his likeness and unlikeness to others of his group. Adolescence is a long period. An individual may change greatly from the beginning to the end, and development may be normal and natural throughout.

The popular conception of adolescence is a period of great changes. Parents expect dull children to become bright, sickly children to grow strong, highly emotional and nervous children to develop poise and balance. Scientific study not only does not encourage such beliefs but even points to quite the opposite view. Rapid growth in childhood predicts rapid growth in adolescence. The bright child remains bright. The dull child gets duller when compared with his age group. The changes which take place during adolescence had their beginning in infancy and early child-

hood, and on the whole constitute a gradual growth process, not a sudden appearance of new characteristics.

Physically, adolescence marks the last growth period. Growth is uneven. The heart grows faster than the arteries and blood pressure is high. Hands and feet develop before the arms and legs; arms and legs, before the trunk. The teeth develop before the nose; the nose, before the jaw and chin. The adolescent frequently worries about his big hands and feet, short waist, and "weak" chin, wholly unaware that this is the common cycle of human development. The functioning of the endocrine glands is especially important during this period. Thyroid difficulties frequently appear, more often in girls than in boys. The activity of the adrenals is closely tied up with the emotions. The pituitary controls body growth and sexual maturing, the latter representing the most important development of the period.

Growth demands food. The boy's appetite is usually enormous. The girl's should be just as good, but it rarely is. Both boys and girls are likely to be erratic in their food tastes. Digestive disturbances, a muddy complexion, and skin eruptions are common. Activity is necessary; restlessness, natural; overexertion, all too common. Overstimulation should be guarded against and regular rest and sleep provided.

Physical growth is influenced not only by racial stock and family heritage, but also by disease, food, work, and personal habits. If the factors which have retarded growth are environmental and have been removed, slowness of development during childhood may be followed by accelerated growth during adolescence. The normal individual, however, has been growing up all the time, and at the end of the period is physiologically mature. The developmental differences between boys and girls during this period are partly natural and partly cultural. Girls are naturally taller than boys during early adolescence and they mature one or two years earlier. This earlier maturing causes them to take positions of leadership during the junior-high-school years. Differences in muscle growth, on the other hand, are due largely to differences in the activities in which they engage.

The adolescent is often awkward. His long legs take him across the room in fewer steps, his arms reach further, his hands grasp

more than he expects them to. Any one who has observed the perfect grace of a teen-aged boy or girl in swimming, playing tennis, or running a race realizes that his awkwardness at the table, around the house, or in the classroom is due to a lack of mastery of his "new" body and to a lack of at-homeness in that environment rather than to either innate awkwardness or carelessness.

The claim that a marked change mentally takes place during adolescence has no support. With increase in physical size, wider social contacts are opened to both boys and girls. Their field of interest has broadened and their interest span has increased. Measured by adult standards, adolescents think more logically, think about more things, and think longer about any one thing than they did a few years earlier. They enjoy using abstract terms and general principles and thinking about theoretical situations. Reasons have become important. Drill and routine work have lost their interest except when seen as a necessary step in reaching a goal which seems vitally important to them. The *capacity to learn*, as measured by abstract intelligence, appears to reach maturity for most people during this period. The important thing to teacher and student is that the *ability to learn* has not ceased. Adequate evidence is available to show that, with maturity, the individual increases in social intelligence—in ability to manage business affairs, rear children, make a satisfying home, and work out social adjustments. It should not be overlooked, however, that, with the increasing secondary-school enrolment, the number of students with little academic interest has also increased.

Physical maturing and the accompanying broader social experiencing have their emotional effect upon growing youth. Clothes and personal appearance assume a new place in life. Values are important, a willingness to sacrifice oneself for a great cause easily aroused. The desire for approval has shifted from the wish for adult approval to that of their own age group. Adolescents are sensitive, afraid of being put in situations which will make them appear ridiculous or of being treated as children. Unhappiness frequently comes from not understanding their own growth and its normality. Partly because of natural maturing and partly because of attitudes conditioned by society, emotions accompany-

ing sexual maturing are prominent. Teasing by adults may result in serious emotional disturbances. Dementia praecox, hysteria, and milder forms of emotional instability occur at this time, due in part at least to faulty training. Emotional stability is best acquired by providing during childhood and youth good health conditions and a large number of interesting, worth-while activities, accompanied by intelligent guidance in meeting increasingly difficult life problems. Children in their growing up need the intelligent and sympathetic understanding of those older people who are in large measure responsible for directing their development, and these people are their parents and teachers.

The Needs of Adolescence

Man as such has certain needs. The particular culture in which a group lives influences the form that these needs take. Each period in life also makes certain needs more important at that time than others. The end of adolescence is adulthood. To be an adult is to be physiologically mature, but it is more than that. The person who acts as an adult is a self-directive person. He knows himself—both his strengths and weaknesses. He has developed a set of values for guiding his conduct. He has achieved emotional balance, established himself with those of his own sex and with the other sex, worked out co-adult relationships with his parents. He is self-supporting and will be able eventually to carry his share in maintaining a family. Adolescence is a product of modern civilization. That the period be used wisely, resulting in a life rich and meaningful both to the individual and to society now, and later as an adult, should be the goal of every young person and of those who feel responsible for helping him grow up.

Although it has been insisted that those things which happen during adolescence are simply what has been happening since early childhood "writ large"; it is not intended to minimize the period. Rather is the attempt made to emphasize the fact that training for adolescence begins in early childhood, even in infancy. The acquiring of emotional stability and control is one of the greatest of these needs. The person emotionally adult has poise and self-confidence in his various social relationships. He has

achieved adult relationships with his parents and other family members. He also has the ability to take what life brings. He may bend under the strain but he should not break. Many adults act childishly when things do not suit them. They react in a personal way in situations which should be met impersonally and objectively.

A second need especially important at this age is that of becoming self-supporting. The adolescent whose formal schooling will end during this period needs to select a vocation and to begin preparing for it. The one whose ability and physical and financial resources are likely to cause him to continue into college should have begun the process of focusing his interests in a vocational area even though he is not ready to select a specific job goal. An important aspect of preparing for earning a living during this period is to find out one's assets and liabilities for job getting and job holding. Strengths should be built upon, weaknesses overcome when this is possible. The individual who has weaknesses which cannot be overcome should be helped in learning to live with them and in acquiring strengths that will outweigh them on a job. Emphasis should be placed on developing those habits and abilities which increase general employability. Parents are frequently overambitious for their children. The son is to be a lawyer or a banker so as not to work as hard as his father; he is to be a minister because there has always been one in each generation. The daughter is to be a musician, a college teacher, or a movie star because her mother had girlhood ambitions.

In the change from a making-a-living to an earning-a-living economy, the adolescent has had a less important place in contributing to his own support. The type of protection offered to workers by certain organized groups has frequently had the effect of making it unnecessary for individuals to learn what it means to put one's best effort into a job. Adolescents should have the opportunity for work and should be taught to work. This is an important and much neglected responsibility of modern society. The home, the school, and the larger community should all cooperate in providing a work program for present-day youth. Work activities will be significant, however, only if they are of real worth—not busy work. Young people should also have experiences

which contribute to extending and enriching their resources in ways other than earning money. The person who has acquired skills in the maintenance aspects of living and uses them may earn little from these skills but he will live better. He will also be happier because he has a feeling of increased personal worth.

Many young people marry during adolescence or early adulthood. The age of marriage, especially for girls, seems to be moving downward during recent years. The success of home and family living is influenced in many ways by the ideals established and by the techniques and skills acquired during this period. The most important factor in satisfactory adjustment in married life appears to be the satisfactory adjustment of the parents.[1] How much this can be counterbalanced by an educational program, when the adjustment is unsatisfactory, no one knows because it has never been tried to any marked extent. Wholesome relationships with one's own sex and finally with the other sex, a well-balanced outlook on marriage and family life, an interest in children, skill in living intimately with other people, and ability and desire to carry one's share of responsibility within the home should be worked for during adolescence—and, if achieved, will meet a deep-seated need of this age group.

The end of adolescence finds the individual largely controlling his own behavior. Conclusions he has reached as to what is of most worth will become guiding principles to govern his conduct. These conclusions grow out of his experiences. He should have help in setting his goals, in making concrete a philosophy of life that is workable and likely to be satisfying over a long period of time. "The boy who sees, in many diverse situations, the ability of the strong to coerce the weak may develop the ideal that 'might makes right.' He may then use this ideal to guide his own conduct or as a basis for judging new situations. His generalization is just as truly an 'ideal' as a conviction that the strong should protect the weak."[2] Only as he has other experiences and learns to evaluate the experiences he has can society hope for an adult who selects the better ways—those ways we have come to think of as providing

[1] L. M. Terman, *Psychological Factors in Marital Happiness*, p. 372. McGraw-Hill Book Company. 1936.

[2] Luella Cole, *Psychology of Adolescence*, p. 144. Farrar and Rinehart. 1936.

the foundation for democratic living in its fullest sense. Successful adulthood depends upon the manner in which and the degree to which the needs of adolescence have been met.

Special Interests of This Age Group

The interests of the adolescent parallel closely his needs and offer education an approach for meeting these needs. During early adolescence both boys and girls desire social acceptability by their own group more than anything else. What *the crowd* thinks, says, and does, is all important. The crowd remains important but its size decreases with the years until many older adolescents are entirely happy with two or three intimate friends. Boys' gangs during these early years seem to be the result of allowing them more freedom than girls, rather than the development of an interest peculiar to them. Both groups are interested in their own sex in early adolescence more than in the other sex. Girls, however, develop heterosexual interests earlier than boys. Boys are interested in sports throughout, although their failure to participate in the later years is accepted with better grace on the part of their associates than during early adolescence. This is especially true if a boy shows leadership or deep interest in some other activity considered important by his group, such as student council, school paper, amateur photography, or band. Interest in participating in sports, except for those who go in for competition, is likely to shift as they grow older to the more socialized games in which both sexes may participate. The younger boys also like manual and mechanical activities. Girls enter adolescence quite ladylike as a rule, having accepted the standards of conduct set up by the adults with whom they are most closely associated. Their first interest in boys results in an attempt to accept boys' standards. At the end of adolescence the well-adjusted young woman has again accepted a feminine role, her own rather than that of her parents, however.

During this period, both boys and girls have become increasingly interested in personal appearance and dress. This becomes more important as their interest in the other sex develops. Under

normal circumstances today, once the adolescent has established himself with his peers, his job is, without doubt, his greatest interest. Some girls consider the job as marriage; others as wage-earning, temporarily at least. Many, however, set both marriage and gainful employment as their goal. Most boys and those girls who expect to work over a period of years, whether they marry or not, are likely to look too far ahead in making vocational plans. They see themselves at the top of their chosen field rather than holding the in-between jobs which may be as far as they will ever go. Interests, especially those of boys, are influenced a great deal by the community in which they live.

Although many adolescent interests recede into a place of less importance with the years, they may be useful at any time as a motivating force in realizing the goals of education. A wide range of interests and worth-while activities in and out of school will provide the background for selecting a vocation now or at some future time, as well as add to avocational and recreational interests. Special interests, followed up, may become permanent interests, making life of increasing value as the years go by. Satisfying hobbies are to be encouraged throughout this period.

The developmental picture of boys and girls from the onset of puberty through adolescence has been charted by a committee of the Progressive Education Association as shown below.[3] This is suggestive both as to the type of activities most appropriate for this age group and in providing a basis for setting up criteria for evaluating the school's offerings.

Growth from:	*Growth toward:*
Variety and instability of interests.	Fewer and deeper interests.
Talkative, noisy, daring with a great amount of any kind of activity.	More dignified, controlled masculine and feminine adult behavior.
Seeking peer status with a high respect for peer standards.	The reflecting of adult cultural patterns.
A desire for identification with the herd, the crowd of boys and girls.	Identification with small select group.

[3] Lois H. Meek and others, *The Personal-Social Development of Boys and Girls with Implications for Secondary Education*, p. 121. Progressive Education Association. 1940.

Growth from:	*Growth toward:*
Family status a relatively unimportant factor in influencing relations among peers.	Family socio-economic status an increasingly important factor in affecting with whom boys or girls associate.
Informal social activities such as parties.	Social activities becoming more formal, such as dances.
Dating rare.	Dates and "steadies" the usual thing.
Emphasis on building relations with boys and girls.	Increasing concern with preparation for own family life.
Friendships more temporary.	Friendships more lasting.
Many friends.	Fewer and deeper friendships.
Willingness to accept activities providing opportunities for social relations.	Individual satisfying activities in line with talent development, proposed vocation, academic interest or hobby.
Little insight into own behavior or behavior of others.	Increasing insight into human relations.
The provision of reasonable rules important and stabilizing.	Making own rules with a definite purpose in view.
Ambivalence in accepting adult authority.	Growing independence from adult and dependence on self for decisions and behavior. Seeking relations with adults on an equality basis.

Social Change and the Adolescent

Social changes in the last century have affected adolescents as much, if not more, than any other age group. Of primary importance is the fact that it has created the period of adolescence itself. An economic world was built up that did not need their labor. This was accompanied by an ideal of equality that sought to extend the advantages of the so-called privileged groups to all youth. In many ways this has been good for them. It has also had its disadvantages. It has frequently prolonged the period of dependency beyond the time when this was desirable. With changes in industry men work farther away from home. More jobs are open to women. Parents away from home still feel responsible for

the younger children, but the adolescent is frequently on his own from the end of a short school day until the parents' work day is over or even longer. The home, no longer a production center, offers little opportunity for stimulating, worth-while activities. In fact, many parents measure their success largely in terms of their ability to give their children more material things, free them from any responsibility for contributing to family or personal maintenance. Such a way of living defeats the very purpose parents have in mind in striving for it, making life harder instead of easier for their children when they are forced to assume adult responsibilities, robbing their children of the very experiences that have made them strong. Recent experiments of government and industry, looking to a more nearly self-sustaining home, should, if successful, provide many activities of value to growing children. Emphasis on work programs for boys and girls of high-school age offers promise of remedying some of the weaknesses in adolescent life today.

More leisure and more ways of using it are available today but little has been done to help people learn to use it for creative purposes. Amusements have been commercialized. People have more of their fun sitting down. Automobiles and good roads have removed the problem of distances. Movies allow the individual to travel the world in thought and to run the whole scale of human emotions vicariously in an evening's entertainment. Parents know neither where the adolescent is nor what he is doing, thinking, or seeing. Every advertisement and every shop window is an attempt to make people dissatisfied with what they have. The child may beg or coax for what he sees. The adolescent is tempted to secure it by his own hands.

The smaller family has tied many parents, especially mothers, too close to their children. Some have been unwilling to see their children grow up. They see themselves losing the only job they have as the children become independent. Many young people have had no contact with little children. Some enter marriage with no intention of rearing a family, never having learned the joy of companionship with the young. Broken family ties frequently cause mothers, and sometimes fathers, to hold on to their

children, refusing to allow them to lead normal lives with their own generation.

For many years, industry made tempting advances to young people, offering good clothes, automobiles, amusements, adventure, and the job with which to pay for them. During the depression years just past, industry still offered all these ways of spending money, but it was not nearly so ready to provide the opportunity for earning money. Young people grew up expecting to find a place in the world's work. Many were trained for a special vocation and found no chance to prove their worth. Many expected at fourteen to sixteen years of age to go into jobs calling for no special training, and found these industries no longer open to them. The years just past were hard on all ages. They were especially difficult for the adolescent who saw so much of what he had been brought up to think secure crumbling about him.

Problems attendant upon national defense are no less serious than those of the depression years although we are only beginning to know what they are and we do not yet know what may follow. Jobs today are plentiful and wages high. Many jobs, however, are far away from home. Many young people, earning high wages for the first time, have had little experience in spending. Many are marrying and having to separate before adjustments have been worked out, marrying with no prospect of establishing a home in the near future. War casts a heavy shadow over the plans of many youth today.

Adolescents and Their Families

The good home has its special values for teen-aged boys and girls. The good home, however, is not to be measured by the size of family income, the professional or social status of the parents, or its location on the right side of the railroad tracks. So far as all age groups are concerned, a home is good to the extent that it promotes the fullest development of and a rich life for each member of the family in all the relationships of life. A home is good for the adolescent to the extent that it also encourages him in growing up, offers him security at his level of need, and arouses a feeling of pride in it and his relation to it.

Parents who are wise encourage their adolescent sons and daughters to grow up. This is fundamental. It demands a realization, however, that growing up is a learning process. Physical growth of a sort takes place of itself. Parental guidance may be and usually is desirable in building good health habits and attitudes. Other phases of growth—the individual's social, emotional, moral, esthetic, and intellectual development—on the other hand, depend entirely upon his experiences. Adults have a major responsibility to provide the kind of experiences children need to grow into happy, satisfying adulthood.

Adolescents need to have a feeling of security in the family, to feel secure in their parents' affection for them as people even though the parents may not always approve of or agree with what they do. "The basic security that gives one courage to use one's powers and test one's vision depends most of all upon the unwavering love of one's parents."[4] Boys and girls of this age should be guided in understanding their parents and other family members, come to see and respect them as separate personalities, and receive from them similar understanding and respect. Each individual should be helped in building a place increasingly adult for himself within the family by sharing in responsibilities, by feeling that the family counts on him in various ways even as he counts on its members. Society has overemphasized a philosophy of the individual's living his own life apart from the lives of others. No individual can build a rich and full life for himself without help from others and without giving help to others. Many of his concerns are and should be the concerns of the group.

The adolescent needs to feel proud of his home—proud, however, in terms of its real worth. Changes will need to be made—sometimes in its structure, always in its use—with the growing up of children. They should help to plan these changes. The home should be thought of as a family home, planned for family living with appropriate provision for the special needs and interests of all the members, not as belonging to either the children or the parents alone. The young woman of a generation ago was credited with saying, "My parlor and mother's kitchen." Today many

[4] K. W. Taylor, *Do Adolescents Need Parents?* p. 15. D. Appleton-Century Company. 1938.

families have tried to make living so compact that there is not only no parlor in which to entertain friends but also no place in which to study, to work with tools, to experiment, to house a collection, in general, no place for the adolescent or any other member of the family to have a life of his own.

A point at which family life frequently interferes with adolescent development is in the parents' unwillingness to let their children grow up. They try, through their money, their experiences, their willingness to do things for them, to shut them off from all unpleasantness or hurtful experiences. They want their children to have the easy life, the advantages which they did not have. In doing this they all too often overlook the good in their own upbringing of which they are depriving their children. A second point at which parents may fail their children arises from their own insecurity. They are unhappy in their relations within the family, on the job, or in the community, and this they pass on to the children. Mothers may build up unreal relationships with their sons and daughters as a substitute for working out adult relationships with their husbands. A mother sometimes deliberately substitutes a relationship with a son in which he "squires" her around for the more natural relationship with her husband. Broken homes, from whatever cause, all too often lead the parent who is left with the children to develop an unnatural and unwholesome dependence upon them which interferes with their normal maturing.

The School and Youth Today

Although postponing later and later the period of assuming adult responsibility, modern civilized society is still giving all too little attention to the educational needs of adolescents. The secondary school was built to promote academic achievement. It needs to be rebuilt around the growing understanding of adolescent needs—its primary purpose to prepare students for normal living in all the relationships of life, including earning a living. Such a reorganization demands more than the cutting off or adding on of services or a shift in emphasis.

Of primary importance is the necessity for the school to know

its students and to help students to know themselves and to accept increasing responsibility for their own development. The teachers' knowledge of students, as shown by the New York State Regents' Inquiry, is, no doubt, much like that in other states. "On the whole, the present results show that these boys and girls have managed to get along reasonably well with their teachers, for the traits mentioned are more frequently strengths than weaknesses. While they have attracted little unfavorable attention to themselves, however, they have seldom made a sufficiently vivid impression upon their teachers to be remembered as individuals a few months after leaving school."[5]

Guidance as a special service in the schools is comparatively new. Many schools have built up a special counseling department. Certain clinical aspects of counseling, without doubt, demand the service of the highly trained expert. Many teachers, however, have interests and personal qualities which make them especially good as counselors. They may and probably will need in addition some special training. In any event, the entire school should unite in its study of students, pool its resources, agree on plans, and make available the findings of individual teachers to all. The student who is asked to write his autobiography four or five times for as many different teachers within a year or two can hardly be censured for dressing it up a bit.

Parents and other agencies should be called into the planning of the educational program. The school by its very nature may need to take the lead in securing such cooperation. This should be a joint effort to locate problems and to find out the best solutions to them—solutions to be carried out sometimes by the school and sometimes by other agencies and at other places. It should not, however, be the school's asking the home to help in carrying out the school's already planned program. In some places, parent-teacher-student organizations have already replaced parent-teacher groups. The community in the past—and this includes the home and the school—has paid altogether too little attention to providing a "good" life for young people, good in terms of their needs and interests and not as adults see it for themselves.

[5] R. E. Eckert and T. O. Marshall, *When Youth Leave School*, p. 107. McGraw-Hill Book Company. 1938.

The school in its organization can and should provide for the needs peculiar to adolescents in a variety of ways. Students should have contact with one or two teachers over a period of years. The individual student then in time knows some one teacher well and some teacher knows him well. The school should also provide for the socialization of those students who need it—help them with their manners and dress, personal hygiene and grooming, all those aspects of living which will make them more acceptable members of their group. It should also provide activity and informal types of education throughout. This should include a good health program directed toward achieving good health habits and attitudes, a program of physical activity concerned with a wide variety of activities (many of which have possibilities for carry-over into adult life), and course offerings organized informally in such fields as home economics, industrial arts, fine arts, agriculture.

It should not be overlooked that the school is competing with an increasing number of other agencies for the interests of students. Referring again to the New York State Regents' Inquiry, the question must be raised as to whether the school is doing all it should to develop interests. "And yet it seems significant that the few differences that do appear in breadth of interests are related to sex or to the community in which a pupil has lived and not to the number of years he has spent in school."[6] This is not to say that the school should endeavor to put on bigger and more exciting radio programs or movies or skating parties. It rather points to a need for the school to develop cooperatively with the students and the community a realistic and functional educational program. School life for adolescents today is largely artificial and unreal. It is a credit to the intelligence of many of them that they have rejected it as relatively unimportant and meaningless for them. As soon as they see the school as a place where their real needs can be met, it will not need to compete unfairly, as teachers now think, with more exciting, off-campus attractions. The response of out-of-school youth to the work of the C.C.C. points to the fact that young people, even those of a non-academic type, are not averse to education.

[6] Eckert and Marshall, *op. cit.*, p. 127.

In spite of these deficiencies in education for the adolescent, there has been a tendency in recent years to overemphasize the problems of adolescence. Society developed as a male-adult-dominated world. A few years ago it moved in the direction of a child-centered world. The depression years brought a real danger of seeing the problems of adolescents and of young adults out of perspective to the problems of other age groups and the larger society. What is needed is a world which has a place for people at every age and in which all work together for the well-being of all. Some educators fail to face reality as they make proposals for educating youth. They would free adolescents from routine work because they have outgrown that interest in it which they had as young children. They would not have them coerced. They are to have work only with those teachers they like as people, work in groups with their immediate friends. They are not to be held responsible for tending the furnace at home or for sweeping the front steps lest the routine bore them or they lose status with their group.

It is very easy to become sentimental and unreal about any period in life. What adolescents want most of all is to feel that they are a part of the on-going stream of society. It is desirable to know adolescents as a group and as individuals. But this knowledge is important only as adults, whether parents or teachers, use it to help these young people face realistically the world in which they live and what it means for each one of them to find a place in it which he can fill successfully and happily. Life for most people has much routine and this is fortunate. Each day brings its associations with people whom the individual would not choose as intimate friends. There is no better place to learn to be an adult than in the home and school under the guidance of adults vitally concerned with the adolescent's successful growing up.

Special Values in Home Economics

Home economics offers unusual opportunity for meeting adolescent needs and interests. Its greatest values are for girls, but it has values for boys also. The wider contacts of the high-school girl have broadened her interests. Natural maturing has increased

the time that a problem will hold her attention. These broadened interests and the longer interest span should be kept in mind in organizing and teaching home economics.

Home economics teaching should foster good health through teaching good nutrition, prevention of disease and accidents, care of the sick, the relation between housing and dress and health. Adolescents need help in building sound attitudes toward health. They need to understand and appreciate the value of building up a physical reserve and the relationship between health during this period and physical and mental health in later years. They should learn the physical basis of good living habits, that a balance between activity and rest is part of nature's plan for optimal organismic growth and functioning, and not the outmoded notions of an older generation. They should understand their own development, especially their sexual maturing, realizing that much that disturbs them individually is natural, common at some time to all in their own age group. The home economics teacher will not attempt to solve all these problems. The informality of her contacts with students and the nature of the material with which she deals, however, afford her an unusual opportunity to know what both the group and the individuals within the group most need and want. She should then bend all her efforts to seeing that these needs are met in one way or another.

The home economics teaching environment should promote health. The necessity of adjusting constantly to furniture and equipment calls the attention of an already self-conscious girl to her size. The style of chairs and the height of desks and tables influence ease of working. Round shoulders, curvature, and bad posture usually begin before this period, but they either are corrected or become fixed habits during this time. Lighting, ventilation, and heating are important factors in providing healthful surroundings. The arrangement of equipment in relation to light may contribute much toward promoting health. Many students who should wear glasses refuse to do so because it makes them look different from their classmates. The teacher's first responsibility is to see that these students do the kind of work and work under conditions which provide the minimum of eye strain. She may also help girls in planning hair arrangements which will make

the wearing of glasses less noticeable. Laboratory classes should be organized and routine duties distributed so as to provide relaxation without such movement becoming aimless. Adolescents vary in physical development, and the finer manipulative processes should be left until the individual has coordinated his growing muscles. This calls for adjusting instruction to each student rather than giving the same assignment to all.

Home economics, to be mentally stimulating, must deal with real situations, solve problems that make a difference to people in their living and that demand thought in their solving. Students should increasingly set their own goals and select the educational experiences to be followed through in realizing their goals. The teacher with her broader experience should help them see problems and possibilities for solving them.

Home economics has much to offer adolescents in developing poise and self-confidence through instruction in personal hygiene, grooming, social customs and manners, and in acquiring desirable personality traits. A study of becomingness of clothing and the suitability of dress to the occasion, the planning of a costume, rather than the selection of single garments because they are attractive, will answer many of the problems arising in regard to dress. The study of child development will help them understand themselves and other people better. A study of family relationships should lead to greater understanding of their parents' point of view and make for increased congeniality between the two generations. Home economics should broaden the field of interests, provide a wide range of activities, and increase recreational resources.

Social development is especially important to adolescents during the early years. The less secure the adolescent feels, the greater will be his desire to conform. Many would rather stay home from a social affair than dress differently from the others. Friendships are frequently built out of a feeling of personal inadequacy—a desire for support.

Social maturing for the adolescent has two important aspects. The first is to establish himself with his own age group, as one of the group first and with his own sex, followed by sound and wholesome relationships with the other sex which will lead eventually

to courtship, marriage, and the establishment of a home. The second is to shift his relationships with parents from that of the parent-child relationship of early life to a co-adult relationship. In this relationship, the young adult seeks the guidance of parents when their greater maturity and experiences will be helpful, wants the security of having them behind him, but does not want to feel that he must follow a pattern because it is what his parents wish for him or themselves.

Without doubt, the school should give more attention to the social development of pupils at the secondary level. Many young people will have few opportunities to make friends, to become acceptable members of the group, and to learn acceptable modes of behavior unless the school interests itself in such problems. This age group also wants and needs to be friends with understanding adults, and a teacher is frequently the best person for such a friendship. They need also to have the chance to develop special abilities which will give to each individual a unique place in his group, help him to develop his own personality. Special attention should be given to helping adolescents understand and appreciate the values in differences. "Young people can be ruthless in their denunciation of those who are different; and part of growing-up is learning to accept these differences with not only tolerance but appreciation."[7]

Home economics by its informality offers many situations in which teacher and students may get acquainted with each other. The living area of the department can also be used for a wide variety of social gatherings. The teacher should seek to help students overcome undesirable differences—poor habits of personal hygiene and grooming, rudeness or thoughtlessness in manners. She should also endeavor to help individuals develop special talents and interests. It is good for the individual to know that he can do something well and to receive recognition from his group for this ability even though it be no more than making good coffee or scrambled eggs on a hike.

The home economics teacher has an unusual opportunity to help adolescents as they seek freedom from their parents. All too often these youngsters want all the privileges of the small child

[7] Meek, *op. cit.*, p. 54.

in the home and the privileges of an adult outside. They have failed to make use of the many opportunities within the home to show their parents that they are growing up, that they are able to meet situations as an adult. It is not to be wondered at, then, that parents see them still as little children outside the home. This is the parents' fault as much as, perhaps more than, the fault of these boys and girls, but it is the latter that the school most often touches. The boy or girl who has learned or is learning to carry his share of the load at home, who is concerned with all the life of the family, who can take responsibility in planning and preparing meals and in doing family marketing, who shows that he is a responsible adult within the home, will find that he is well on the way to being given the privileges and the responsibilities of an adult in his outside relationships.

The wider fields open to women and the changed social attitude toward women in outside employment have made the selection of a vocation entirely different from that of even a generation ago. Teaching has long ceased to be the only "genteel" occupation open to women, nor is the girl greatly concerned as to whether the job is genteel or not if it is something she really wants to do. The notion of early selection of a vocation and the training for a specific job of a few years ago has been replaced by the idea of selection within broad limits and training of a more general nature, thus enabling the individual to find a place in any one of several specific lines. Work done during vacations and guidance and counseling given in school or by parents may help greatly in making a choice. The selection of a general line of direct interest to her and within her ability to succeed seems desirable even though changes may be made in later life. Marriage will and should alter the plans of many women for a vocation.

Many of the vocations open to women are closely related to different aspects of home economics. Talents, aptitudes, and interests which show up in one phase or another can be carried over into some work which the girl may follow as a vocation. Girls may investigate different opportunities along home economics lines and prepare reports for the class. They may also direct out-of-school work in home economics toward vocational tryouts.

The number who will find a vocation in home economics or

related fields will be relatively small. It has value for all, however, in improving their general employability and satisfaction on the job. The ability to work happily with other people, to select suitable and becoming clothes, to wear them well, to be well-groomed, to make a pleasing appearance, to have good manners, to be at ease in the ordinary social relationships of life, contributes to personal happiness, but it also contributes to success on the job. Learning such as this has money value, more than most educational people have realized or admitted. The habit of weighing values in the use of money, selecting nutritive food, making one's living place attractive and restful, choosing clothes that wear well, giving them the care needed, and following a healthful regime helps in getting more of life's satisfactions for the money earned and in turn adds to satisfaction with the job.

Modern social life has many drives which must be satisfied if adult happiness is to be achieved. The present-day adult's standards for material things reach far beyond the securing of bare necessities. Education, recreation, and travel demand time and money. Success in business has become a socially desirable goal. Marriage during adolescence means for the average youth either prolonged parental support or a sacrificing of the fulfilment of certain desires which have come to occupy a prominent place in living. It seems worth while, then, to work for a balancing of conduct with the numerous demands of social life so that later years will see the satisfaction of a large number of these desires and an accompanying well-rounded personality.

The formal education of youth should contribute to the development of ideals of home and family life, the qualities which are to be desired in a husband or wife, the traits which make for successful family life, the kind of home which will give most satisfaction to all the family group. Home economics should increasingly direct its teaching to those present-day needs of adolescence. An ideal to be worth while must be thought through to the course of action necessary to establish and maintain it. Understanding, appreciation, and sympathy should be seen as factors in successful living together. These characteristics do not just happen. They must be worked for.

Home economics is made up of many phases—foods, clothing,

housing, child development, family relationships, personal development, management. The values within these different phases will vary with different individuals and at different levels. The interest of the seventh-grade girl in little children is likely to be different from that of the twelfth-grade girl or boy. The manipulative processes of food preparation and housewifery will interest the young girl as techniques. They will interest the older girl as means of serving attractive meals to friends or of having an orderly and pleasant house in which to entertain. Clothing study in relationship to personal appearance and social acceptability will be of special interest to the girls at the tenth-grade level or thereabouts. Ways of making the home more attractive will seem especially important to the adolescent when she becomes interested in the good esteem of her group. Money management may be of special interest to a girl whose desires outdistance her resources and whose family lives on a restricted budget. Emphasis and interest in personality development and family relationships will shift with the years. Home projects dealing with problems vital to the maintaining of the girls' present homes result in a new insight into the broader aspects of homemaking. The class set-up calling for much give and take between its members leads to an evaluation of personal traits and characteristics. All such situations assist in building ideals of home and family life.

A philosophy of life is made up of what a person thinks about people and things; interpreted into action, it controls one's behavior. Standards and ideals are in a state of flux during adolescence. The experiences children have at this age will do much to set them, although influenced greatly during childhood and remaining changeable to a lesser degree during adulthood. Guidance is necessary if conduct is to be reliable and honest, if relationships with other people are to be motivated by interest and concern for their welfare. Thoughtful brothers and sisters, wise parents, kindly neighbors, and good citizens are the result of education received from one source or another; they do not just happen.

Home economics has unlimited opportunity for developing character traits. It will also increase its vitality as it points its teaching toward social situations, making budgets to secure the

greatest values for all the family, providing a home suited to the widely diversified needs of a group, rearing children for happy, successful life in an ever-changing social order. Successful homes are no longer made apart from society. They are concerned with the provisions made by the government for their welfare, with the conditions of industry where many must secure the money for their maintenance and from which all must secure a large share of their material goods, with the stability of the financial system to which they must intrust their savings, with the progress in interrelationships in protecting their homes and their youth from the dangers of war. With its home visiting and home project program, home economics ceased to be a classroom subject. It must now go beyond the home into all the institutions and relationships which affect home and family life.

Home economics is bound by no field of knowledge. It is as wide as home and family life itself. Its teaching is successful largely to the degree that it contributes to the forming of a working philosophy of life. Narrowly presented, home economics may warp attitudes toward life and hinder the development of a proper sense of values. Broadly planned and wisely taught with the needs and characteristics of the adolescent in mind, home economics has an unusual opportunity to be of educational value at this period of growing into happy, wholesome, well-balanced manhood and womanhood.

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CHAPTER V

THE HOME ECONOMICS CURRICULUM

Long-time planning is essential for good teaching. Recently the practice of applying the term curriculum to the educational experiences of students rather than to the school's offerings has been growing. Both uses of the word seem desirable. *From the student's point of view the curriculum is what he gets from the school*—a curriculum increasingly custom-made for him out of all the educational experiences the school offers. The school, however, also needs to see its possibilities for education as an integrated whole. The same may be said of each field. This means its course offerings, provisions for guidance, so-called extra-curricular activities, assembly programs, home-room activities—all the experiences that may in any way come under the direction of the school. In home economics, it includes all that the department does for and with students—cooperative community projects, home economics clubs, supervised home experiences as well as course offerings. *What a school or a field has to give, then, makes up its curriculum*—a curriculum broader in scope than the work of any student, in order that the needs of all students may be met. This chapter will concern itself with planning the home economics curriculum in this larger sense.[1]

The good curriculum is planned in its broad outlines over a long period. It suggests more than any group will do. Such a curriculum, however, can and should be dynamic and functional. In fact, it is more likely to be both than the one with the shortsightedness of unit-by-unit planning, that is guided by a "What-shall-we-do-next?" philosophy of education. Relationships between activities are thought through, each learning unit making its contribution to the larger purposes of education. Time always sets certain

[1] See Ivol Spafford, *A Functioning Program of Home Economics,* John Wiley and Sons, 1940, for descriptions of common practices at the different school levels and for more detailed suggestions for building a broad and rich program of home economics.

limits as to what can be done. Overemphasis at one place at the expense of underemphasis at another is avoided. Such planning does not preclude change or adjustment to new needs, but rather encourages and makes possible change with the minimum of loss of other values.

Basic Considerations in Curriculum Building

Four basic steps are essential in planning a curriculum: the setting up of objectives and their interpretation into behavior outcomes; the determining of the learning needed to achieve the objectives; the selecting of educational experiences for acquiring the learning needed; and the deciding upon ways of measuring the extent to which the learning has been acquired. Curriculum planning, whether of the entire school or of a field alone, takes its direction from the philosophy of those who are responsible for the program. This philosophy determines who shall help in curriculum building and the emphasis to be placed upon the needs of students and the needs of society. It determines the learning considered of most worth, the kind of educational experiences provided, and the way in which learning is evaluated. The specific objectives set up within an area will be influenced by the needs of those being educated and by the needs of society; the experiences used in achieving the objectives will be influenced by the resources available. Basic considerations for the teacher in curriculum building, then, are to think through her philosophy of education,[2] to know the needs of society and the needs of students, and to be familiar with the resources available within the local situation.

Home economics teachers who have just finished their college preparation for teaching will be more or less familiar with the larger social problems and their implications for teaching. Those who have studied less recently will do well to look objectively at the world today and see its meaning for home economics. All around them, they will see people living under crowded housing conditions and in houses below a decent standard of living. They will see people undernourished: some because they do not know what is good nutrition, some because they do not think it makes

[2] See Chapter II for a discussion of a philosophy of education.

any difference what they eat, and others because they do not have the money with which to buy the necessities of life. They will find families whose level of living is lower than it need be because people have not learned to buy wisely, to cook appetizing meals, to make attractive clothing, or to keep clean and orderly houses. They will find home life less stable than it was even a decade ago, maladjustment increasing, and children growing up with little parental attention to the ideals they cherish or the attitudes they have.

No social-minded home economics teacher can close her eyes to the fact that these problems are in areas of life activities which home economics claims as the core of its teaching. Some of the things that are happening are the result of large social changes, things that have come about, at least in part, because society at large has not cared enough about personal and family living. Other things are the responsibility of individuals, people who have not been interested in improving family life or who have not known how to do it. Today's needs merely highlight situations of long standing, but which have passed more or less unnoticed in a concern with less important things. National defense and war are increasing and will continue to increase the problems in many of these areas. These are national problems and many home economics teachers will think them too large to attack or perhaps will think that they are the responsibility of other people. They are local problems as well as national, however, problems of people in the smallest village and rural community. Each teacher, as she begins to think about her teaching, should list the more general social problems which are affecting home and family living and for which home economics must assume at least some responsibility for solving.

To know these larger problems is important, but it is not enough. Each community makes its own demands upon education. The teacher needs to know the meaning of these larger problems for the local community. She needs also to know its standards, ideals, generally accepted code of conduct, recreational opportunities. She will be interested in the ways in which the people earn their living; whether they are home owners, renters, or tenant farmers; whether work is regular or seasonal; and who owns the town and runs the school. She will be interested also in com-

munity attitudes toward health and homemaking, the contagious diseases most prevalent, the mortality rate and where it falls heaviest, the sanitary standards and marketing facilities. The racial and cultural patterns of the people will influence her teaching. The community will have forces that interfere with fine, wholesome living as well as agencies that may be counted upon to work for the good of the home. These things the teacher will want to know.

The general characteristics of adolescents were discussed in the preceding chapter. It is desirable that the teacher understand the age group with which she deals as a group. She needs also to know her students as people and to know them in relation to the homes from which they come. She needs to know the size of families, who earns the family income and how, what work is done within the home, how long the family has lived in the community and in their present home, and what their level of living is. She will want to know many things about the students: what work they do at home, whether they have worked outside the home, their attitudes toward health and family life, their recreation. No one can set for a teacher a pattern for the information she should seek to secure about the community, the homes, or the students. The points given here should be thought of as suggestive only.

Some of the information the teacher wants will be gotten casually in community, home, and school contacts. Some of it will be secured at the beginning of the year as a matter of form. Other information will be secured as new learning units are planned. County, city, and school health records will give facts that the teacher should know. The superintendent, principal, and older teachers in the school can supply helpful information if they know what the teacher wants.

In securing data about students and about their homes, the teacher should be governed by certain guiding principles. First, data collected should be limited to what she thinks she may use. Many schools and teachers have spent so much time collecting information about students that they have had no time to find out what they had or to use it. Second, the official records of the school should be the first source of information. Students should not be asked to give the same data over and over again. This is especially important as more teachers become interested in know-

ing more about individual students. Third, getting acquainted with students should be a growing experience for them and for the teacher. No attempt should be made to collect all the data a teacher may want at the beginning of the year in order to have that job done. Fourth, the individual personality should always be respected. *No information* has enough worth to the teacher for her to secure it at the expense of hurt feelings or of arousing a feeling of shame. Helping students to know themselves and to use home economics is more important in any case than for the teacher to know everything about a student or to assume responsibility for solving all her problems. Fifth, the information the teacher secures about the pupils, regardless of the source, should be considered confidential except when it may be used to increase understanding of them and to improve the educational opportunities for them. It may make interesting dinner conversation to talk about the number of students who live in mortgaged homes, whose mothers have only a grade-school education, or whose fathers carry no life insurance, or to paint a picture of the problems of a particular girl. No thoughtful teacher, however, will thus betray their confidence.

The knowledge a teacher acquires about students will run the gamut from good to bad, from desirable to undesirable family relationships, from high to low incomes, from large to small families. Some girls will see homemaking largely as drudgery; others, take no responsibility for it. Some, burdened with the care of little children and heavy duties, want only to get away from it. Girls living in closely crowded quarters may have no place in which to entertain friends, know little of privacy or property rights. Other homes will have taught much that is good about homemaking—high standards of housekeeping, skill in cooking and cleaning, fine ideals of home life. Educational goals worthy of attainment are based in the end on the needs and interests of individual boys and girls, seen in relation to the needs of the community and the larger society.

The resources available will have their influence in setting up objectives. They will also be determining factors in the type of educational experiences provided. The administrative point of view; the undeılying purpose of the work now offered; the strong

and weak points of the present program; the work being done in science, social science, and art; the provisions for home visiting and supervision of home experiences—all will influence the goals set up. The amount of money budgeted for its support, the financing which must be provided by department earnings, and the space and furnishings available will set certain limits on what can be done.

If one year of home economics is required of all girls and only a small number continues for a second year, the objectives of the first year will be different from those in the school in which nearly all the girls take two and three years of work. A study of the work previously offered will show whether the offerings have been well rounded or narrowly conceived. It will also show whether life activities or subject matter has formed the basis for planning educational experiences. If the upper fourth in academic ability is not taking home economics, the teacher will want to find out whether this is because the students see nothing challenging in it or because they are being guided into other courses as being more worth while. If home-life education is being left out of the core offerings or is being taught by teachers from other fields, the home economics teacher needs to find out why this is so. If the major purpose of home economics is to prepare for homemaking, the objectives will be different in certain respects than if it is for general education. If for vocational guidance or gainful employment, the objectives will be different in still other ways. If it is a typical high-school group, the underlying purpose may be a composite of all these goals. The teacher needs also to know her own field, to be familiar with curriculum materials developed in other places, with scientific studies, and with reports of committees concerned with the teaching of home economics. She should also know the source materials available for helping students in solving their problems.

Place of Home Economics in the School Program

The school set-up may provide for home economics as a special subject, for home-life education as a part of core offerings, and for short units in connection with other courses. The good pro-

gram will increasingly make use of all these types of offerings. Home economics began at the high-school level as a special subject, sometimes required, more often elective. Frequently this was as a minor subject. Later it became a full-credit subject, still largely elective. The field in its beginning was narrow, made up largely of food and clothing study, each semester or year of work dealing with one phase only. These courses frequently included a few lessons on health, management, house furnishings, and care of the house. As these aspects became more important in the thinking of high-school teachers and as still other phases were added, the offerings were organized along two lines. One was the general homemaking courses in which several phases were studied during a semester or year; the other was to add courses dealing with these newer aspects—health of the family, management, house furnishings, child development, family relationships. There is a very definite trend today in the direction of offering basic high-school home economics courses which deal with many phases of the field. Some schools are developing these courses around the life activities of students, drawing on any or all phases for the learning needed to meet the situations. In addition, schools are offering semesters of work that deal with different phases, for those students whose special needs or interests lead them to want more work along a special line.

Two other uses of home economics have been made in recent years: one, the offering of short units of instruction in connection with non-home economics courses; the other, the development of core and unified courses. The exchange of classes in agriculture and home economics and in industrial arts and home economics is the most common development of the first type. Sometimes the home economics teacher teaches a unit in another course without receiving any service in return. Units of buying food, clothing, and house furnishings and equipment have been given in consumer-economics courses taught by other teachers; units in family financing, in mathematics; units in the application of science to the home, in science classes.

The core course[3] represents an effort, through a more functional

[3] For a more detailed discussion of home economics in connection with core and unified-studies programs, see pp. 381-383; see also Spafford, *op. cit.*, pp. 162-174; 189-193; 202-208.

approach, to give all students the opportunity to acquire the common learnings which they need for living. Early efforts resulted in putting two or three courses together with an extension of the daily class period. Today many core courses are being organized around the life experiences of students. Teachers from many fields are being drawn into the planning and teaching. Home-life education is being made a part of these newer courses, taught frequently, however, by non-home economics teachers. When home economics becomes a part of the core, its special offerings are developed as special-interest courses for students who want more work in the field, either as general home economics or in a special phase. The home economics teacher has not only a responsibility to plan the best possible program of home economics as it has been set up, but also to use her best efforts to have it used wherever it has a contribution to make. The general principles of curriculum making remain the same whatever its use in the school program.

Setting Up Home Economics Objectives

Objectives to be worth while must be sufficiently concrete to be usable in determining the learning needed and for selecting the educational experiences and ways of measurement to be used in their attainment. *Changed behavior* is the ultimate goal of education. The individual thinks and feels differently because of his learning, but, most important of all, he acts differently. The end goals desired are of two types: general behavior patterns—thoughtfulness of others, scientific attitude; and abilities—ability to meet personal and family food needs, ability to manage financial affairs in keeping with the income, ability to share in the making of a home. General behavior patterns seem to be the result of behavior in many situations. A girl acquires the habit of systematic planning—a general behavior pattern—by planning her class activities, a home project, the material needed for a dress, the spending of her income, a week-end trip, the day's work. It may be a part of the learning in many aspects of home economics. It finally emerges, however, as a way of looking at things or a habit of working. Abilities, on the other hand, are specific, acquired by focusing attention on how to do specific things. Such learning may be the re-

sult of experiences in many situations, but it has no carry-over into general abilities.

Appreciations, understandings, attitudes, and knowledge are important types of learning and sometimes represent as much as the school can accomplish in regard to a particular problem. They are, however, intermediate steps in attaining the larger objectives —general behavior patterns and special abilities—and should be so recognized. A desire on the part of the learner to change behavior makes for economy of learning. Appreciations and understandings may be important influences in arousing this desire. An appreciation of the difficulties which parents have overcome in making life safe and satisfying for the family is worth-while learning. Thoughtfulness of one's parents—a general behavior pattern —has, however, much greater worth as an end goal.

Objectives for teaching will cut across all areas of home economics. The large centers of interest of common concern to those in home economics have to do with reaching decisions as to the values most worth working for in personal and home living; with working out wholesome and satisfying personal and social relationships; with discovering individual needs, interests, and capacities; and with utilizing the resources of the individual and the family in achieving the values set up as most worth working for. A fifth center of interest for a small number of students has to do with guidance into and preparation for a vocation.[4]

The large purpose of education, interpreted into general objectives dealing with behavior, would include the following.

The student is making progress in:

- Achieving a guiding philosophy of life.
- Using intelligence in solving life problems.
- Adjusting, when desirable, to changing conditions.
- Exercising responsible self-direction.
- Understanding human growth and development and their meaning for him and for society.
- Knowing the areas in which both his greatest abilities and limitations lie and making appropriate adjustments to this knowledge.
- Using with increasing appreciation and success, the materials

[4] See pp. 2-4: see also Spafford, *op. cit.*, pp. 10-13.

and tools provided by nature and society for human welfare, intercourse, and understanding.

Attacking life situations creatively; seeking his own answers to problems in contrast to mere performance and conformance.

Acquiring the abilities needed for successful, satisfying living.

Developing recreational and avocational interests.

Appreciating the interdependence and interrelatedness of people.

Understanding other people's points of view, seeing values in differences of interest, ability, and achievement.

Accepting his share of social responsibility in home and community affairs; working with others for the achieving of cooperative, functional agencies and institutions.

Understanding present-day social forms and institutions so that he may use them intelligently and help in their remaking as changes are needed.

Looking ahead to long-time goals for individual and social striving.

Settling problems through conference and discussion.

Recognizing that education is a continuous process extending beyond the period of formal schooling.

Directing his own learning.[5]

These will need to be interpreted further into specific objectives.

Typical of the more specific objectives which both home economics teachers and students need for guidance in curriculum planning and in evaluation are: The individual is making progress in

Accepting his share of responsibility in maintaining a home.

Understanding the necessity for group action in meeting problems of home life.

Weighing values in planning the use of his and the family's resources.

Attacking the solving of problems of living—health, food, clothing, housing—with intelligence rather than by imitating other people or by learning ready-made answers.

Seeing the need for meeting maintenance needs—food, clothing, shelter, in terms of fundamental satisfactions for the individual and the family.

[5] Spafford, *op. cit.*, p. 75.

Acquiring ability to prepare simple home meals.

Acquiring ability to meet the everyday physical needs of the pre-school child.

Developing interests in a wider range of problems than those discussed in class, reading additional materials, discussing problems with people other than the individuals and groups suggested.[6]

Students, as they set their own objectives, may wish to be even more specific, suggesting such objectives as learning

To get along with younger brothers and sisters.

To do the family food buying.

To dress suitably and becomingly on the money available.

To be at ease in social situations.

To plan and prepare wholesome, appetizing family suppers.

To understand one's own growth and development.

To take good care of one's own health.

These more detailed objectives are easily handled by teacher and students in planning specific learning units. They need, however, to be seen in relation to the larger objectives set up for the whole home economics program. How far the instruction within a particular situation should go in seeking to help students achieve the different values in home economics will depend upon the needs of a particular group, the needs of society at any particular time, and the resources the teacher and pupils have at their command. The learning to be secured elsewhere—in other school experiences, the home, and the community—will also have its influence upon the work done in home economics. Focusing attention on large goals should keep the real values of home economics from getting lost in too many details. Many teachers have failed to attain the larger purposes because they have given too much time to things of little importance.

Regardless of the specificity of the objectives, they should finally be defined in terms of pupil behavior. Only in this way can achievement be measured. Growth in ability to meet individual and family food needs may be shown in any one or all of the following ways: by selecting more nutritive food, buying more critically, making a family canning budget, growing new kinds of

[6] *Ibid.*, p. 76.

vegetables, learning new ways of cookery or improving in ways already known, or by changes in food habits. Increase in the ability to get along with people may be marked by less quarreling with family members, by working harmoniously on group projects, by being fair with others in the use of school equipment, by seeing the good in those with whom one disagrees. Progress in achieving the scientific attitude will be shown by the extent to which the individual acts on prejudice and personal bias, tries to see the other person's side when opinions differ, searches until adequate evidence is secured in solving a problem, is interested in finding the best answer rather than on having his opinion accepted, and is willing to assume responsibility for his mistakes and failures. Not all pupils will show their learning by doing the same things. It should be possible, however, to set up sufficient behavior situations to provide the basis for appraising the progress being made by each individual.

Determining the Learning Needed

The attaining of any objective centers around the student's learning certain things. The girl who wishes to live more happily with the family must develop a real desire to improve, must set for herself desirable patterns of behavior in family relationships. She needs also to understand people and why they behave as they do, to know what makes for happiness and unhappiness in living together, and to be able to evaluate the results of different courses of action. She must also develop skill in putting what she has learned into use in concrete situations. Such learning includes acquiring ideals, attitudes, appreciations, understandings, knowledge, skills, techniques, and habits. Some persons today place emphasis on the attaining of ideals, attitudes, and appreciations, considering them of greater importance than knowledge, techniques, and skills. No choice need be made. One means little without the other. The school can secure both types of learning.

The ability to meet the food needs of the family involves a wide variety of learning. Minor problems have to do with understanding the relationship between food and health, making a food budget, buying food, planning meals, preparing food, managing time

and energy in food preparation, storing and preserving food, serving meals, table manners, and the home food supply. Learning that is concerned with the relationship between food and health includes the relation of growth and physical well-being to the amount and kind of food eaten; special diet needs accompanying certain health conditions and health conditions growing out of diet deficiencies; the variation of food needs with season, age, and occupation. Learning that is concerned with the food budget will include the relationship between the total family income and the amount which can be spent for food, the higher percentage of the income required for food as income decreases, factors affecting the amount to be spent in providing an adequate and satisfying diet. Food preparation would include learning the effect of different cookery processes, time, and temperature on digestibility or palatability or both; the meaning of cookery terms; skill in cooking; and the use of different kinds of utensils in preparing food. Each objective set up should be analyzed to see what learning is needed for its achievement.

It is not intended that these basic learnings be put before students to be learned as such. Pretesting is essential to determine what a particular group or individuals within a group may need to learn. Learning activities should then be set up and used to the end that pupils arrive at ideals, attitudes, standards, and general concepts about problems of living; that they have sufficient experience to support their conclusions; and that they have the knowledge and techniques to make a beginning at putting their beliefs into action.

Definite criteria for measuring the worth of basic learnings should include: the learnings selected are of intrinsic value to the group in so far as present needs can be ascertained and future needs predicted; they are basic to the realization of the general objectives selected for home economics and for education as a whole; the activities called for in attaining these learnings are suitable for the age group to be taught; a variety of approaches is offered in keeping with individual differences in interests and needs; special interests may be followed beyond the common understanding desired for all; the learnings are attainable by the

majority of the class with reasonable effort; the materials necessary for realizing them are attainable.

Selecting Learning Experiences

Home economics has added phases and enriched content until the most experienced teacher who looks at activities alone could well be puzzled as to what to have the pupils do. Objectives set up as long-time goals provide the only safeguard against a curriculum made up of unrelated activities, many of which may have little significance. Activities are then selected with definite learning in mind. These activities may be carried out as classwork or as club or home experiences. They may be individual, small group, or class experiences.

Much discussion has centered around subject matter and method as two different things. Selecting the subject matter to be taught and then deciding upon the methods to be used in teaching it worked so long as the learning of subject matter was the goal of education. Subject matter then answered the question of *what to teach* and method of *how to teach it*. The teacher is still concerned with what to teach, but this is seen as behavior patterns, special abilities, habits, and skills rather than as information to be learned. *Subject matter used in a certain way* becomes the means through which these learnings are to be realized. Subject matter and method then are inseparable.

The teacher who sees the purpose of learning to prepare suppers at school as being able to prepare family suppers at home sets up a different teaching situation from the one who sees it as learning basic cookery processes, interpreting recipes, and acquiring management techniques. The dishes prepared in each case may be very similar, the cookery processes and management techniques used much the same, but the total teaching situations will be different because the purposes are different. Following the instructions of the teacher and finishing the neck of a dress as soon as possible to prevent its stretching has one value. Studying home-made dresses to find out causes of dissatisfaction and then finishing the neck of a dress first has quite another learning value. Learning the composition of different foods in order to classify them is dif-

ferent from learning it as part of the working knowledge needed to plan well-balanced meals. Worth of subject matter cannot be judged until seen in relation to method, that is as *subject matter to be used in a certain way*. The term subject matter, used in later discussions, will include what has been thought of separately as subject matter and method.

Activities selected should contribute to progress in learning. Frequently activities selected have no learning value because of what the group has already done. The activity, looked at alone, is good, but so much of the learning has already been acquired that it has little worth as a teaching medium for this particular group. The girl's desire for another dress is valuable only as it is made the medium for acquiring other learnings which she needs and which she cannot secure easily without guidance. These learnings may be modifying a pattern previously used, making a dress on the bias when only materials on the straight have been handled, working with synthetic fibers when previous experience has been with cotton.

Each year food may be cooked and meals prepared to advantage if attention is paid to the previous learning acquired both in and out of school. Some forgetting is, no doubt, to be expected. Even then, relearning should be easier than if the material had never been taken up before. The teaching has fundamental weaknesses, however, when each unit must repeat a large amount of learning supposedly taught before. These faults may have been in the first teaching: the material was presented as facts rather than in relationship to problems of living, the building up of relationships was neglected then and later, or the girls were fully aware that the teacher would teach it again if it were needed. The weaknesses, on the other hand, may be not in the first teaching but in the later units. Teachers frequently fail to pretest, taking it for granted that they must begin at the beginning again. This is especially true of the new teacher in a school. Girls who have learned to prepare supper foods and have combined these into meals for families at home should come to a foods unit the next year, knowing a great deal more along some lines of food preparation than at the end of the school unit the previous year. The teacher should attempt to find out the nature and amount of this learning be-

fore selecting the activities or going very far into the new work. The question of depth and breadth always faces the teacher in selecting activities. Shall a few things be done well, or a good many touched upon? How little cooking can be done and the girls still become good cooks?

Clothing construction can be learned on a fairly wide range of garments; basic principles of starch and protein cookery apply to many different foods and ways of preparation. Ability to solve a problem intelligently or to understand the parent's point of view may be arrived at through many different activities. One teacher begins the study of home life by discussing successful homes; another, by asking the class members what they do at home that causes friction; a third, by asking them the things about their homes which mean most to them, which makes them most unhappy. Each leads to a better understanding of home life, the girl's place in the home, and her share in making it satisfying both to herself and to the rest of the family. Each has value alone, but if all were used it would cause unnecessary repetition, be boresome, and take up time needed for other things. Choices must be made. An activity cannot be judged alone. Value for teaching purposes is always relative, no matter how much good may appear to be in the activity itself.

Sometimes outcomes are not attained because emphasis is not placed where it should be. A group, untidy and careless in habits of cleanliness, studied personal hygiene but showed no marked improvement in appearance. The teacher found through home visiting that the girls had no easy way of keeping clean. The small houses had no bathrooms and little privacy; water had to be carried in and out and heated in a kettle on the stove. Fuel was an item of expense. Some of the girls may not have realized that they were not clean. Many were conscious of it but did not know how to solve the problem. The need was quite different from the one the teacher had first seen. Girls who do not eat breakfast because they do not have time for it with the work they must do before leaving for a three-mile walk or a twenty-mile drive to school may need help in management techniques and easier ways of doing housework; girls who do not eat breakfast because they want to be

slender or to stay in bed twenty minutes longer may need lessons on nutrition and health.

The question of how far immediate, pressing needs should control the experiences selected is important. The trend has been toward meeting immediate needs, and this is well. Attention to future needs is important also. Neither will be neglected if the teaching is directed to the recognition of principles and the seeing of relationships and if application is made to many different situations. More learning will be acquired at the time of teaching, and the learning will be more useful in changing conditions later in this type of teaching than if meeting an immediate need is the only goal. Starch cookery, taught by having girls prepare each type of carbohydrate dish, takes more time in relation to learning and has less to show for it in the long run than starch cookery which points to basic cookery principles and to recognition of the types of food and kinds of prepared dishes to which the cookery processes apply. Art teaching may be organized into fundamental principles even though the classroom mediums of teaching are placing wild flowers in an earthen crock, making an inexpensive cotton dress, and rearranging furniture in the humblest home. A picture from a magazine may be mounted on heavy wrapping paper and hung with as much attention to spacing and grouping as the finest etching. The yard, terraced to prevent washing with its clumps of native shrubbery and curved walks of stones carried from the creek, may represent all the fine points of landscaping applicable to the most expensive estate.

Simple clothing and inexpensive house furnishings may be well selected. Judgment in buying may be developed in purchasing brooms and mops as well as vacuum cleaners, in buying sweaters and dollar hats as well as broadcloth coats and capeskin gloves. Judgment in deciding upon the best way of doing a job may be reached in cleaning unfinished pine floors as well as hardwood ones, in scouring tin pans as well as polishing silver. Activities should lead to the recognition of basic principles and the logical organization of learning. Both the immediate and the more general needs will then be met. If time permits, class discussion and individual work may extend to the buying of more expensive equipment and nicer house furnishings and clothing, to the car-

ing for lovely china and tiled floors; but certainly such instruction when far removed from actual conditions should not dominate the selection of activities. The girl should get neither a feeling of resentment against her present home because of its limitations nor one of hopelessness because she sees nothing in home economics which she can use.

Natural maturing plays a part in the success with which activities contribute to learning. The young girl loves routine for its own sake, enjoys housewifery duties, is inclined to whip eggs and beat cakes beyond the desired consistency because of sheer joy in doing it. The older girl enjoys routine only as she sees it as part of larger goals which seem important to her. She will do the necessary things to have a clean kitchen if she has learned to think order and cleanliness worth while, but not because she likes scrubbing and scouring in themselves. She will polish silver and glassware and will iron table linen to a fine gloss because she wants an attractive table, and not because of pleasure in the tasks themselves. The older girl will stop to perfect a technique if necessary for her larger purpose, but the technique alone would have given pleasure a few years earlier. As the girl matures, abstract problems and hypothetical cases increase in interest, especially with the more academically minded. Approval of classmates is desired by the older girl, although that of the teacher is still appreciated if given as "man to man."

Physical maturing has a bearing on the time of learning motor coordinations. The sewing machine can be used successfully much earlier than fine hand sewing should be attempted. The young girl can do large splashy things—straight stitching, stenciling and tie dyeing in large designs, weaving, Swedish darning. The making of doll clothes as teaching mediums in the lower grades should center around color and textile study, recognition of the pieces of a pattern, with a minimum of attention to good technique in construction processes. Machine stitching should be encouraged, and fine hand stitches, nicely bound armholes, and carefully faced neck finishes discouraged. No age can be set for the group as a whole to do one thing or another. Maturing is an individual matter, and growth is gradual. A knowledge of the characteristics of the different levels should, however, influence differentiation

in general activities selected for a beginning junior-high-school group and a later senior-high-school one. It should also influence teacher guidance of individual pupils throughout the school period.

An individual or group may have the maturity to deal with certain problems but, because of differences in experiences, not be able to take up learning at the same place as another group. Girls who have had no firsthand experience with small children may need to have a play group brought together so that they can see little children in common life situations. Bringing together a group for girls having young brothers and sisters would be a wasted activity, although they may need a demonstration of ways in which children can be taught to develop initiative and to play congenially with other children. To discuss formal landscaping with a group familiar with gullied yards, wire grass, and weeds is an academic discussion and nothing more. To begin the study of table service by talking about cover, silver, and linens where families do not have enough spoons and knives for all the family, where the Sunday table covering is oilcloth and the everyday one the wooden table top, is to defeat the purpose of the instruction at its beginning.

The activities selected may measure up in every particular and still fail to contribute to the learning desired because of special conditions within the situation. It may be the sort of activity not suited to the length of the period. Some cooking which the teacher may want to teach cannot be done in the forty-five- or sixty-minute period. The proposed activity should be studied and if it cannot be done and the desired learning secured, it should not be attempted. Enough things that can be well done are possible without doing things that will fall short of the wished-for results. It should not be overlooked, however, that there is a definite trend in the direction of a longer period in the so-called academic fields—usually in the setting up of core or unified-studies programs. Home economists have allowed or accepted the shorter period in many schools. They may well question whether this is to the advantage of the most worth-while learning in the field.

The facilities available—equipment and space—may not lend themselves to the activity. Poor ovens prohibit some kinds of

baking. Small-group and individual preparation of meals may be impossible with the size of classes and the amount of equipment. Griddle cakes may be out of the question because only thin frying pans are available. Lack of resourcefulness may cause the teacher to turn down desirable teaching mediums, but there may be, on the other hand, difficulties temporarily unsurmountable which must influence the activities selected. The teacher who ends the period with a number of "if's"—"If there had been a griddle," "If each girl had used an oven alone," "If the time had been longer"—would do well to think about other means of securing the learning desired.

The training and experience of the teacher may set up certain limitations, temporary only it is to be hoped. A new teacher, beginning work in the middle of the year, was faced with the need for lessons on curing meat. Having had neither school nor home experience along this line, she decided that it would be better for these families to continue to use their own methods than for her to teach without tested experience. She made inquiry as to families noted for their well-seasoned sausage and hams that kept into the summer and asked permission to learn their ways. She collected bulletins, and the class discussed their home problems and exchanged methods of making sausage, curing hams, pickling beef, but no meat was cared for at school because the teacher realized that she did not have the experience to direct such work, nor was she well enough acquainted in the community to ask people there to do it for her.

The learning going on in other places should have its effect on the final selection of activities. A 4-H Club's stressing home gardens and canning, a physical-education teacher's emphasizing physical recreation and personal hygiene, and a science teacher's applying science principles to home life should bring about changes in what otherwise might be done in home economics. Pretesting can show the beginning place for a proposed activity, but only close cooperation and understanding of the emphasis to be given in these other areas as the work goes on can prevent unnecessary duplication. Activities suited to the maturity and experience of the group should be selected with definite pupil

growth in mind; facilities should be available for carrying them out successfully. Subject matter and method should be seen as one in the planning.

The Evaluation of Learning

Evaluation is an important step in learning and concerns both teacher and pupils.[7] Planning ways in which learning is to be measured is an essential aspect of curriculum building. Pretesting deserves more consideration than it is usually given. Much usable learning may be acquired at home or in other classes. Girls will bring more from their homes in some communities than in other communities. The teacher and the pupils should evaluate such learning, build each new learning unit on previous learning. Much testing may be informal, being a minor part of the activity itself from the standpoint of time, but important because it shows both the direction of learning and the amount that has taken place. Observation of conduct in out-of-class situations will provide further evidence of progress in learning. Formal testing will give other data. Measurement has many aspects, its value centering in showing the teacher and pupils what has been done, what material of that studied is yet unlearned, and what the pupils are ready to do next. A working knowledge of evaluation and measurement is essential to setting up and using a curriculum successfully.

The Organization of Learning Experiences

Early in the year, a skeleton plan for the work should be set up. This should be flexible, changed as new needs arise or as conditions change. It should include the general objectives of home economics and point to the basic learning considered essential and the learning experiences and instruments of evaluation to be used. This planning will be tentative, to be expanded and enriched as time goes on. The phases of work to be offered, the problems to be solved, the time to be given to each, and the order of study should be blocked in, however. How much detail should go into the first

[7] Evaluation is discussed in more detail in Chapter XIII.

planning will depend upon the experience of the teacher and the way in which she works best.

Home economics has shifted in recent years from the semester or year of work dealing with one phase of home economics toward a set-up in which many phases are studied during a similar period. A second major shift seems to be taking place at the present time. As the problems of students become increasingly the foci for planning their educational experiences, all areas are being drawn upon as needed in solving a problem. More use may be made of certain aspects one year than another, depending upon student needs, the length of the course, and the number of years of work which most of the group will take. Separate units dealing largely with a particular phase will not necessarily be set up each year. The relation of food to health and the relation of art principles to clothing selection may be points of emphasis in units dealing with food and clothing problems the first year. Problems dealing specifically with health of the family, home care of the sick, and art applied to the home may be set up in separate units the following year. Food and clothing for children and making a place for children in the home may be included in a study of the larger problems of feeding, clothing, and housing the family. Behavior problems of children, on the other hand, may be stressed as a separate unit. Most problems having to do with consumer economics, management, health, and art take on greater significance when seen in their interrelationships than as problems concerned with these aspects alone.

Each teacher must work out her own organization. If the first study of food problems is to deal with general principles of nutrition, meal planning, and cookery, from the standpoint of the general purposes of the instruction, the time of year in which it is offered is of little concern. However, if a community has not yet solved the problem of having balanced meals during certain seasons, as is true in many rural sections, this may become an important factor in setting the time for the foods instruction. The teacher may want to plan for the basic first-year instruction to be given during the season when securing variety at home is least a problem, and leave the planning of balanced meals with a limited variety of foods to a more experienced group.

If one of the desired results of the study of housing is yard improvement, the instruction should come at a time when such work can be done at home. If wool dresses are to be made, they should be planned for, not only when the girls are ready to make them from the standpoint of techniques developed, but when they will be useful additions to the wardrobe as well. The same consideration should enter into the making of cotton dresses in some sections. The season of new materials in the stores will also affect clothing-construction work. Some girls in cities ask for activities involving only a small outlay for materials at the opening of school because the family has had the expense of getting a number of children ready for school. Health study dealing with home care of the sick, prevention of the spread of disease, and building up of body resistance may be much more effectively carried over into practice if taught early in the year. The results desired in out-of-school application, the problems in the home, marketing conditions, and pupil growth to be worked for from year to year—all are factors in determining instructional order.

The amount of time to be given to meeting different needs must be decided upon and the total time distributed throughout the entire course. If management and child development are stressed throughout, less time will be given to them in specially planned activities. Relative importance for a particular group or community is a factor in deciding upon emphasis. Poor health conditions and a great deal of sickness will call for greater stress on health instruction and care of the sick than will healthful surroundings accompanied by a minimum of sickness. If diseases caused by deficiency diets predominate, food study becomes of major importance. The amount of time given to many problems in a particular year will depend upon whether most of the girls can be expected to take a second or third year of the work if it is offered. If it seems desirable to change basic habits of living—personal grooming, social relationships, health habits—emphasis in each year will be more effective than teaching given over a longer period in one year. This applies also to those areas in which some girls have had little experience, as buying, planned spending, and art principles applied to everyday life.

Cooperative Planning Essential

Recent years have brought increased awareness that school learning does not take place apart from the pupils' other experiences and that all these should then be seen as a unit. Out of this has come a recognition of the need for the curriculum to be school-community-pupil planned and carried out. Major responsibility and leadership within an area naturally rests with the teacher in that field. She must know the points at which others can and should serve and enlist their help, knowing at the same time those aspects of the job which she cannot and should not delegate to others. She has also the job of interpreting the objectives set up and the general plans made into a working whole. Her past experiences, her knowledge of what others are doing and of source materials in the field should count heavily in the planning. The school should work with other agencies for the good of the home and work for and with the home—trying to make it possible for the family to do many of the things it would and should do, but does not now do.

The teacher, desiring to develop a functional program, will look first to the students for help in deciding upon goals and selecting educational experiences. Many of these will come from their immediate needs, situations they face in which they feel inadequate. Others will come from what they know of the home economics experiences of other students; still others, from talking with students who have had home economics and from talking with their parents. Motivation is an important factor in learning. If students help in setting goals and in selecting the experiences through which they are to be achieved, most of the teacher's difficulties in interesting students will be solved.

As students and teachers begin to talk with those outside the school, these people quite naturally will take a greater interest in the curriculum. Parents of seventh-grade children at Aberdeen, South Dakota,[8] participated in a forum discussion as to problems connected with educating their children for home and family living. Committees of parents and teachers at Bronxville, New

[8] Spafford, *op. cit.*, pp. 167-168.

York,[9] organized to study the educational needs of high school boys and girls as they were concerned with personal living, citizenship, home and family life, and the world of work. A group at Fort Collins, Colorado,[10] made up of representatives of various community organizations and teachers, discussed how the school might educate more effectively for home and family living. Beginnings in community cooperation such as these led naturally into an effort to unify community leadership and resources on a more extensive scale. The work of Obion County, Tennessee, Box Elder County, Utah, Wichita, Kansas, and Toledo, Ohio, in community organization is especially significant.[11]

Cooperative planning of the curriculum should extend to the whole school as well as to the community. Each teacher needs to be familiar with the major work being done in other areas. She should also know when students are having related experiences elsewhere in order to point to work yet to come or to tie their work in home economics in with these other experiences. More time for joint planning on the part of teachers is desirable. Few schools can free two or more teachers to work with a small group of students at the same time. Many, however, can arrange for an hour of planning together, perhaps weekly, which may influence the teaching of several groups taught by each teacher.

Cooperative planning such as has been suggested here may look to some teachers like too much for one teacher to undertake and so they will not make a beginning. The teacher who would use the help of others to advantage needs to plan in advance, set the stage to secure their help, not to endorse what she already thinks desirable but to get the best of their thinking where it is most needed and where they can give most. Having secured their help, the teacher should make use of it. She needs always to be open-minded, eager for new learning for herself, experimental in outlook.

The teacher must be sincere in asking for student help and must have that sincerity recognized by the students. She neither should

[9] *Ibid.*, p. 68.
[10] *Ibid.*, pp. 68-69.
[11] Edna P. Amidon and Muriel W. Brown. *Four Communities Pioneer*. Reprint from School Life. U. S. Office of Education. 1941.

seek by devious ways to have them accept her ideas under the guise of being their own nor place them in the position of having to make decisions for which their experiences have not prepared them. If a situation arises in which a teacher has to insist upon the students' accepting her judgment when they seem to be at cross-purposes, she should be open and above board about it. Frequently, however, it will be better to let students carry through even though the teacher doubts the wisdom of their decision. Such an experience may result in more valuable learning even though not what the teacher thought most important. Students will be only too glad to have the teacher assume the role of expert in areas in which they lack experience if they see her working to achieve goals which have been mutually agreed upon.

The teacher needs to build up the concept that the school is a place for learning, but learning broadly interpreted. At one time the learning most to be emphasized in making a dress may be the construction processes—learning how to sew. At another time the girl may make a dress to learn more about management of time and energy and materials. A third time it may be to make a dress for a welfare agency—learning to use one's resources to help someone else. Three dresses are made, but the major learnings in each case are different.

Many teachers encounter difficulties in trying to build a curriculum around pupil needs and interests and to enlist pupil help in planning. Few teachers today in their pre-employment training have had contact with or participated in an educational program built around the needs of students. Some teachers fear to give responsibility even where students can and should take it. Others turn over too much lest they be considered too dictatorial. The immediate concerns of students, especially when inexperienced in planning, are often casual and transitory. They must be led to see more important values. They sometimes want to make dresses because they would like to have new dresses, to cook something they like because they want it to eat, even though they will learn nothing new in the process. Some girls do not have machines at home; others have no place to sew that is convenient or well lighted. Some have little in the way of appetizing and wholesome

food. These may be wholly legitimate needs of students, but not needs for learning.

There would seem to be no good reason for a curriculum's not being teacher-pupil-community planned. The experience itself has educational value for students in helping to grow into self-directive people. The resulting curriculum in turn should be more worth while than the best one that a teacher or school can plan alone.

Curriculum Materials as Guides to Teaching

Most people holding administrative and supervisory positions agree that teachers need help in curriculum planning but not all would agree as to the kind of help. Some school systems are emphasizing a teacher-pupil-planned curriculum for the group with little or no help from a course of study or syllabus. Some larger systems have prepared guide books that offer suggestions as to how to go about planning but with little specific help as to the problems which may arise or how they may be met. Others leave the teacher entirely free, presumably on the theory that the teacher-educating institution has prepared her to build her own curriculum.

Each change in educational practice represents a desire to add new values and to eliminate weaknesses in the old. Sometimes, however, in making changes, values already present are underestimated and therefore discarded. Certainly a school's curriculum should be planned especially for the group being taught. Teachers can learn the techniques of such planning best through experience gained in helping plan their own work in college and in their in-service training. In their planning, however, teachers and pupils are entitled to the best experiences of others. They should be provided with more and better and sometimes different materials from what they have had in many courses of study and syllabi, but not with less. Some of it should be in sufficient specificity to show how it was developed and used. Emphasis should be placed upon helping teachers and would-be teachers *learn how to use these materials* in making a curriculum for a particular group and for the individual students within a group *instead of upon with-*

holding the experiences of others from them. To this material, the teacher will constantly add her own experiences, in time making a rich body of materials uniquely her own.

The inexperienced teacher must base her first teaching largely on the planning and experiences of others. The experienced teacher in a new school must begin her work in the light of what she has learned in other places. Teachers of vocational agriculture, on the job several weeks before class instruction begins, make farm surveys as a background for setting up a teaching program. Many home economics teachers are being employed today for a period beyond the regular school year. With experience, the teacher should be able to make a more worth-while curriculum. The experienced teacher, however, often becomes careless, thinks she knows what to do without long-time planning, without constant re-evaluation of points of emphasis and activities to be used, and without constant alertness to changes in home economics or in community or social needs. With experience, curriculum making should become easier, but a curriculum as a basis for teaching is no less valuable to the experienced teacher than to the inexperienced one.

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CHAPTER VI

LEARNING AND TEACHING

Learning is the heart of the educative process. The psychologist uses learning to refer to any change not due to maturation alone which takes place in the organism. Attention will be focused here only on those changes which are clearly related to purposeful behavior. Different periods have had different ideas as to the kind of learning the school should emphasize. For generations the school stressed rote learning—the acquiring of knowledge for its own sake, the learning of principles and generalizations apart from life situations. Life, on the other hand, demanded creative thinking—the ability to organize old and new learning to make a new behavior pattern to meet the new situation.

Learning in school today is considered satisfactory increasingly only to the extent that it influences the learner's point of view toward life; builds up attitudes, ideals, and appreciations; sets standards; and leads to understanding principles, perceiving relationships, and use in new situations. Such learning calls for a new type of learning experience. It is more than memorization and is not to be tested by reciting. Two results of this learning are apparent: one, the building of personality, the individual is different because he has learned; the other, the providing of a storehouse of learning—understandings, appreciations, insights, abilities, knowledge, skills, techniques—to draw upon in meeting new situations. What the individual has learned has meaning and is therefore useful in solving new problems. Teaching is successful to the degree that it results in pupil learning.

The Necessity for Learning

The real measure of learning then is that the individual thinks, feels, and acts differently. From the standpoint of the school it is desirable that this learning be in ways increasingly satisfying to

himself and to society. The individual receives as part of his original make-up the physical heritage of the race. He acquires the social heritage through learning. Progress not only rests on this learning, but the gains of a generation can be kept only as the succeeding generation learns. We suffer in part today because we have overlooked the fact that the ways of democracy must be learned anew by each generation. Until the very recent past, the learning *necessary for living* was acquired informally from those near at hand and *in the act of living itself*. The world of most people was small, the environment in which they lived as adults much like the one into which they were born. The new situations they were likely to meet were limited. As life has become more complex, formal learning has assumed a place of greater importance in both individual and group success and happiness. It has become such an important factor in everyday living for the common man that the kind and amount provided by the school are matters of grave social concern. The present-day interest of the school in what it may do as a unit to educate for personal and family living is an example of this changed point of view.

The necessity for manipulative skills represents an early need for learning which continues in varying degrees throughout life. The individual must learn to use his body to meet new and changing conditions—to walk, feed himself, handle utensils, work with tools, use the sewing machine, run a tractor, drive an airplane, dodge an auto. Present-day homemaking, although requiring less hard work on the whole, still demands many skills. Learning to use an electric washing machine, dryer, and mangle is more difficult than learning to use a washboard and charcoal irons; but, on the other hand, relatively fewer people do their own laundry work. The home economics teacher should not be less concerned with students' learning the manipulative aspects of homemaking, but more concerned with easier and more economical ways of acquiring and perfecting the skills needed both in school and on the job outside. There is need for better, not poorer, construction of clothing, cooking of food, caring for children, and cleaning of houses.

The school has given too little attention to the values to be gained for the individual in learning to do things with his hands.

Creative activity has been thought of all too often as painting pictures, writing poetry, or composing music. It is good that much drudgery has been removed from housekeeping. It is not so good that people do not learn at a high level of proficiency some of the skills and techniques of everyday living for its personal value to them. The growing girl will think more of herself as she learns to make a good-looking dress, to bake pastry that is flaky and tender, or to arrange flowers attractively. Such learning is no less important for boys although they will not always be interested in the same skills.

The individual also has need for much knowledge, not because *knowing things* has value in itself but because it contributes to *doing things* which he considers essential and worth while. Knowledge takes many forms: names applied to physical objects—cloth, utensils, furniture; facts about things—woven cloth has warp and filling threads, vitamins are essential to healthy physical growth, little is known about the physiology of learning; general concepts growing out of many experiences—healthy children are active, cooperation is essential to happy home life; relationships recognized—management is the same whether planning a day's work, a meal, or a dress; economy may be saving time, energy, material, as well as money; wider learnings attached to terms or situations—a good cake means meeting certain standards of texture, lightness, and palatability, meat means protein, a tissue-building food made more palatable by cooking. Knowledge is tested experience, valuable because it helps people appreciate and understand situations and solve problems. Retention of knowledge is necessary for economy in thinking. Teachers sometimes say that they are interested in teaching children to think, not in their learning facts. No one can think without facts. The individual must either have many facts at his disposal or go to source material for them when he has a problem to solve. The criticism of an education that emphasized memorization was not because people knew too many facts, but because they learned them out of relationship to their use, and so did not use them when they were needed. They also learned many facts that never would have been useful to them.

The individual needs convictions about things strong enough

to control his behavior, ideals of home life, relationships in business; attitudes of honesty, fairmindedness; standards of values worth working for. Emotional responses accompany every experience and are vital in controlling future conduct. People enjoy cooking, playing golf, or visiting friends. They like well-prepared food, bright colors, or detective stories. They are moved by poetry, a lovely sunset, or a well-appointed home. They have a "family feeling," are loyal to business associates, sympathize with the underdog, hate dishonesty. They do not enjoy or actively dislike other things. Left to their own free will, people do the things they like to do. Emotions are not innate. They are the result of learning. They also affect the other learning acquired in a situation, sometimes blocking the acquiring of the learning desired by the teacher. A certain degree of liking or disliking accompanies every learning experience. The school should pay more attention to emotional learnings than it frequently does in order that they may be directed in socially desirable as well as personally satisfying ways.

These needed learnings are not acquired separately. The pupil who is learning to multiply may at the same time see practical uses for the skill and get some appreciation of recorded knowledge and the progress of the race. He may begin to see mathematics as a way of communication and have his first enjoyment in studying in an exact field of knowledge. On the other hand, it may be drill only, "learned" quickly in competition with other pupils to see who can reach the goal first. Attendant learnings may be need for external incentives and rewards or the habit of studying only under pressure. Teachers sometimes assign specific learning as punishment. Fear of disfavor may result in the correct answers' being learned, or a feeling that the teacher was unfair may block all efforts to learn. In any event, it is too much to hope that a love of mathematics or of any other field will result. On the other hand, a dislike of the field and a hatred of study may well follow.

No teacher can escape the responsibility for finding out the total learnings likely to accompany a given situation, for increasing the desirable ones to a maximum and reducing the undesirable ones to a minimum. This does not mean that the child should not learn that certain behavior is followed by unpleasant results *in*

the natural course of events. The girl who measures carelessly, fails to follow directions in combining ingredients in cooking or regulating the oven, should learn to expect a product below standard. The one who stitches without basting, when basting is needed, should learn to expect to have to rip out; who fails to press before certain types of stitching, to expect her stitching to be uneven.

Behavior Outcomes

Changed behavior is the goal of teaching—changed behavior, however, which is the natural expression of the individual, not changed behavior which grows out of fear or a superficial desire to win approval. From this point of view, it is not what the pupil recites but what he does that concerns the teacher. Learning shows itself as specific habits and skills, special abilities, general behavior patterns. Specific habits and skills may be motor skills—ability to use a saw, treadle a sewing machine, greet strangers with poise; reciting facts—dates in history, vitamins in milk, composition of Nylon; recognizing the elements in a situation—the sleeve of a pattern, the warp thread in cloth; making the right response to a sensory stimulus—recognizing colors, odors, water boiling. Imitation and memorization are large factors in such responses.

Special abilities are more complex. They make use of specific habits and skills built up with other learnings into specific ways of meeting new situations. Ability to think includes knowing when a situation calls for thinking—a new answer; knowledge of and skill in using the techniques of thinking; and a standard against which to measure success. Ability to make a bound buttonhole includes knowing when such a buttonhole should be used, familiarity with the techniques of making it, some degree of skill in the necessary motor operations, and a standard toward which to work. Teachers have sometimes considered only the technique aspects in teaching abilities. Skills have no functional value, however, unless the learner also knows when to use them and has set a standard for achievement.

General behavior patterns are still more fundamental to behavior and perhaps more intangible. They include ideals, attitudes, and appreciations. They are the qualities that are called

personality traits. They seem to be the residue of experiences which act as guides in determining behavior. The emotions are an inseparable part of them. Words such as loyal, radical, conservative, fairminded refer to general behavior patterns. They represent what society can count on in an individual. The scientific attitude, thoughtfulness of others, a love of the beautiful, a desire for order, and friendliness are all general behavior patterns which have grown out of many experiences and, when attained, influence conduct in a wide range of situations.

Behavior outcomes are not acquired as separate learnings. The teaching situation should contribute to growth in all lines. In attaining ability to prepare home suppers, the girl may learn many minor abilities, such as ability to buy fruit and vegetables, to plan a work schedule. She will also acquire a large number of specific skills and habits, such as making biscuits, learning the composition of foods. She will also make progress in acquiring such general behavior patterns as working systematically and being helpful at home.

Conditions Which Favor Learning

Teachers have long been interested in the most effective ways of learning. Observation of the conditions under which learning appeared to take place led to the setting up of laws of learning and a certain amount of theorizing as to the physiological changes which took place during the process. That these "laws" are not what they were claimed to be is now pretty generally agreed upon. Recent experiments have led to the conclusion that learning is of many kinds and takes place in different ways, and that little is really known as to what happens physiologically. Lashley "makes it clear that all learning is not alike, does not follow the same 'laws' or take place under the same conditions. Experience modifies behavior in several different ways and each may have a different physiological basis."[1] Kilpatrick says, "If there is any 'law of learning,' it is this: We learn our reactions; only our reactions, and all our reactions; and we learn them in the degree and with

[1] D. A. Prescott, *Emotion and the Educative Process,* p. 161. American Council on Education. 1938.

the conditions and limitations with which we respectively accept them."[2]

Before the individual can learn, he must have achieved a cultural and social readiness as well as the necessary physiological maturity. The individual learns what he is interested in, what he thinks will make life easier and happier for him, if it is at his maturity level and the time and conditions are favorable for its achievement "and, in general, in proportion to the habit and faith previously built in and for such study."[3] His interest in learning will affect the effort he will put into learning. Speed and efficiency of learning are influenced by the genuineness and strength of motivation.

It seems clear that the organism acts as a whole and that learning follows a wide rather than a localized pattern. "No one ever saw a young child put one leg before the other with arms, head, and trunk relaxed. No one ever saw him move one leg, then the next, then combine the two movements, and finally add contractions of the back and abdomen to the contractions of the leg. On the contrary, observation of his movements yields facts that are just the opposite. The-body-as-a-whole is in action and the various parts function in a unified, total pattern."[4] "Learning is a growth process. The growth takes the form of maturation when regarded from the standpoint of the nervous system. The growth takes the form of an evolution of insight when regarded from the standpoint of the organism's experience."[5] Learning takes place through the perception and understanding of relationships rather than by repetition. Purpose becomes an important factor. Whatever happens or has happened to the child outside the classroom situation or the school affects his learning. The child who is afraid, ashamed, or angry; who is in love; or who is unduly excited about a forthcoming trip is not in the mood for the learning of the classroom. Differences in temperament also have their effect on learning.

The new psychological conception of learning calls for a differ

[2] W. H. Kilpatrick, "Life, Learning, and Individuality," p. 370. Chapter XIII in John Dewey Society Yearbook, *Democracy and the Curriculum*. D. Appleton-Century Company. 1939.

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 362.

[4] R. H. Wheeler and F. T. Perkins, *Principles of Mental Development*, p. 126. Thomas Y. Crowell Company. 1932.

[5] *Ibid.*, p. 275.

ent type of learning situation. The desire to learn is an essential factor. The pupil should know to what end he is working and be able to measure progress as the activity goes on. Provision must be made for building up and integrating experiences, and for understanding relationships. Opportunities need to be provided for using in a variety of ways. The teaching situation must provide worth-while learning suitable to the age and experience of the individuals or group—painting furniture, making a dress, planning a budget—presented under such conditions as to become a pupil-accepted goal. A standard for final attainment and the means for measuring progress as learning goes on are necessary. The group making a sponge cake finds out what a good cake looks like, picks out the essential points in securing a good product, and sets a standard for measuring successful achievement at each step. A girl refinishing an old walnut chair examines the work of an antique dealer, finds out the important steps in securing a good finish and what the wood should look like after each step of the process. Learning is more rapid when the individual knows the progress he is making.

Teaching conditions which lead to the seeing of relationships between situations promote learning. This may be seeing the factors common to the present situation and to past experiences, the relationship between cutting a dress on the bias and the bias facing made previously, making cream pie and lemon sauce, planning a budget and a dress or meal. The working out of fundamental principles also contributes to learning. A number of garments are made in class, using different seams. This may meet present needs but fall short of preparing the student to meet future demands. Styles in garments change, new fabrics are produced. Basic principles concerning seams are needed: seams must hold cloth together, be comfortable, be inconspicuous, contribute to styling. The seams used in class may have measured up in every particular, but unless the learning is organized as general principles the pupil is without a foundation for selecting the best seam for a different type of fabric when teacher supervision is no longer available. Having acquired fundamental principles, the individual can go in search of new learning when previous specific learning proves inadequate. This the student may secure by examining

good-looking, ready-made garments of the new styles and materials and by learning a new seam finish.

The level of learning and the difficulties in learning are easily discovered if the student is provided with opportunities to use the learning in new ways. Repeating the activity in a similar situation —baking biscuits and shortcake, darning hose and a woolen dress, arranging furniture in a living room and a bedroom—helps perfect the skill and has its place. For most effective learning, however, general principles should be applied finally to widely different mediums; the principle of balance in art to arrangement of cut flowers, table appointments, wall decorations, shrubbery, dress decoration; the principle of systematic planning to preparing a meal, making a dress, cleaning a house, setting up a budget. Facts, principles, and generalizations must be learned. Their learning means little, however, unless it includes ways of using them. Transfer of training seems to be influenced by the degree of mastery of the learning, the extent of the relationships seen at the time of learning, and the relationship between the situation in which learned and in which it is to be used. Repetition in and of itself seems to have little effect on learning. Application of learning to home situations will contribute to forming the habit of using school learning in everyday living.

Learning takes place through experiencing, direct or vicarious. Direct experiences, however, are always the basis of learning. The individual learns by the experiences of others only as he builds on a background of direct experiences. To one who has not heard a symphony orchestra, the part taken by the wind instruments can be understood only by having them compared to other familiar sounds. "Folding in egg whites" in a recipe for puffy omelet has meaning to a girl only as she has seen it or something similar done. Having learned it through seeing the process carried out and repeating it successfully, "folding in whipped cream" in a recipe for coffee mousse has meaning.

Direct experiencing as the only method of learning would increase greatly the time required for learning and decrease correspondingly the amount and kind of things which could be learned. If one could learn of the beauties of the Alps only by seeing them, or how shoes are made only by making them, both

the scope and amount of learning would be very small. It must not be overlooked, however, that to try to picture verbally the Alps to a person who has never been away from the desert or who has never seen a picture of mountains or to describe the making of shoes to a person unfamiliar with footwear of any type would be a difficult task. Part of the teacher's job is to find the line at which other people's experiences may be substituted for direct experiencing. If reading certain facts about the relationship of food to deficiency diseases will cause a girl to balance her diet or to make changes later if it needs it, then indirect experiencing is sufficient. If, however, she gives correct answers in class without modifying her diet practices, it would have been better to have provided time and facilities for direct experiencing, perhaps in feeding rats. The more varied the direct experiences of the individual, the greater the possibilities of learning through the experiences of other people.

Attaining Specific Habits and Skills

Specific habits and skills fall into two large classes: motor skills and fixed mental associations. Many activities of homemaking require motor skills; and, although few operations may have a best way of doing for everyone, some ways are better than others for most people. Often, if a person is left to incidental learning, useless movements are learned and never eliminated because the learner is unaware of them. The acquiring of motor skills in home economics should be set up as part of a larger activity. Time may need to be taken out, however, to perfect a technique—kneading bread, making the purl of a buttonhole, holding the broom for sweeping. Learning of motor skills is most effective when the skill is seen as a unit. Results are more important than form in the beginning. As soon, however, as a sense of the whole process has been gained, difficulties should be located and corrected. Learning is more rapid when the mistake is corrected early in the process, followed by working conditions which make success possible at that time. The learning of almost any motor skill means a reorganization of old and new skills into a new behavior pattern.

Home economists in recent years have been inclined to mini-

mize the importance of learning motor skills, emphasizing in their place the development of understandings, appreciations, and similar learnings. The ability to think or the scientific attitude may be developed in connection with canning fruit or making a dress as well as in discussing the essentials of a canning budget or buying ready-made clothing, and many girls need both to can fruit and to make dresses. Students have carried out many different activities but few have perfected skills—skill in refinishing furniture, making jelly, baking a pie, laundering clothes. More skill has been developed in clothing construction than perhaps in any other phase of home economics, and yet an examination of the sewing done by the members of a class raise grave doubts as to their skill. Still fewer have learned how to teach themselves skills so that they may go on learning. Home economics teaching by and large has touched on too many things and taught too few.

Decisions must be reached as to the home activities in which it is important for a group to become proficient, and the methods to be taught must be selected. Sometimes a teacher, knowing several ways herself and having reached a decision as to the best method, thinks it will save time to teach only the one. She overlooks the fact that making decisions is an important part of learning. The worth of different methods for a particular community will need to be evaluated. Oven-canning requiring carefully regulated temperatures is obviously impossible in some communities. The procedure may be discussed, nevertheless, even though not tried out.

In spite of variations in the details of different operations, there seems to be a similarity in the steps which lead to the acquiring and perfecting of motor skills with the minimum of time and effort. It seems desirable to set a goal, for the learner to have a clear picture of the result to be attained; to understand the procedure, to know what it is necessary to do to reach the goal—both the old learning to be used and the new to be learned; to try it out, to see how far the procedure can be followed; to evaluate the attempt, to find out the degree to which the tryout was successful and in what particulars unsuccessful; to continue practice with intent to improve, to repeat the operation until both method and result have reached an acceptable level.

Seeing the result to be worked for—a piece of furniture nicely stained, machine stitching well done—both stimulates the desire to learn and gives a definite idea of the end to be attained, makes for a correct start and helps learning. The girl knows what the teacher means when she talks about working with the grain of the wood, applying stain evenly, following a guide line in stitching, a stitch of proper length.

Understanding the procedures necessary to reach the goal is essential and may be given by words, pictures, blackboard drawings, demonstrations, guiding the movements of the body, or by a combination of these methods. The methods used will depend upon the skill to be learned and the previous experiences of the learner. Whipping egg whites or kneading bread are difficult to explain in words and easy to demonstrate. Demonstrations should be used to make the goals clear, to clarify a step in the process, to direct attention to an aspect the student might otherwise miss. Calling attention in words while demonstrating the special points to keep in mind—looseness of wrist in using the whip, turning the dough a quarter turn and kneading with the base of the hand in making bread—helps in remembering what to do until the skills become automatic. Skills should be seen as a whole first and then the separate elementary movements should be practiced as necessary. In making a buttonhole, each step must be correctly made and properly combined with the preceding ones if a good buttonhole is to result. Certain details, however, are more difficult to learn than others and should be given special attention as needed.

The tryout is an important step; it may come at the end of the explanation or may accompany it. Building on what the pupils already know, a complete explanation may be followed by the pupils going as far as they can before asking for help. Sometimes it is desirable for the pupils to make a working plan before the actual tryout. If the teacher makes a practice of giving a general explanation followed by a second one worked out by the class step by step, the girls are less likely to be attentive during the first presentation or to attempt to see the process as a whole. In some cases it may be desirable to repeat those steps which cause difficulty or to call on a pupil to give the procedure with the other students checking her. It may be well also for the teacher to check

her own skill in teaching by seeing how well the pupils get the first time what she shows or explains to them.

Whenever possible the teaching situation should provide opportunity for the pupil to evaluate her own efforts. Sometimes the learner is aware of an unsatisfactory result but cannot correct the procedure. Both the teacher and the pupil must be able to distinguish between the poor product which comes from an error in technique and the unsatisfactory result which simply needs more practice in manipulation to perfect it. A group that is making buttonholes must find out if individual difficulty is in making the purl, cutting the buttonhole on the thread, or in a left-handed girl's trying to follow right-handed directions. The error having been corrected, practicing will improve the total product. In certain motor skills, it may take some little time to get the feel of the process—feeding the cloth onto the needle instead of sticking the needle into the cloth, purling in knitting. Such learning calls for variation of movement until the learner gets the right reaction. Some operations call for new muscular coordinations, starting the upper wheel of a sewing machine with the hand and picking up the movement with the foot on the treadle. A verbal explanation accompanying the motor demonstration increases ease of learning. Mentally knowing what is wanted, physically getting the feel of a movement, and emotionally wanting to learn guarantee success in learning motor skills. Although at this stage accuracy is most important, speed should be held up near the maximum at which accuracy can be attained. Dawdling or a feeling that there is plenty of time works against learning.

Repetition should be intelligent, aimed at making progress in eliminating useless movements, improving techniques, or getting a better result. Practice to make perfect must practice correct procedures. In some operations the whole may need to be practiced, as in treadling a machine; in others, only the part causing the trouble, as in cutting a buttonhole on the thread. Some steps should be repeated until correct. Others may be skipped over for the time being. It seems foolish for a novice to try to work a buttonhole which has not been cut straight. On the other hand, careful directions on the part of the teacher should result in students' cutting their first buttonhole on the thread. Short periods of prac-

tice—three ten-minute periods on the sewing machine—seem to be worth more than one long period. A standard against which to measure progress and the means of finding and correcting faulty techniques should always accompany the opportunity for repeated practice. The dangers in the teaching of motor skills center in the dogmatic setting of a model by the teacher and in the blind following of mechanical directions on the part of the pupil.

Many facts, concepts, and ideas are needed for doing things and should be secured in connection with worth-while learning activities. Purely arbitrary associations—number combinations, telephone and street numbers, names of cloth and utensils—are all learned by memorization. If good habits of memorizing have been formed, the amount of school time given to acquiring such associations in home economics will be negligible. Sometimes high-school pupils have difficulty in calculating the cost of material for a dress, the amount of food needed for a balanced diet, the totals of grocery bills. Teaching number combinations or operations may not be home economics, but if the goals cannot be reached without these tools the teacher will find it desirable not only to motivate such learning but also to direct the pupils in locating their specific difficulties. The names of cloth, utensils, sewing and cooking operations, and the spelling of words are, on the whole, arbitrary associations and can usually be learned as they are used. Students, however, do misuse terms and should be checked for their correct usage. Learning the special characteristics of a certain kind of cloth—the dyed-in-the-yarn quality of gingham and the dyed-in-the-piece quality of voile—helps in fixing the names of these materials. The degree to which students think the learning of these things important will have much to do with the efficiency and speed of their learning. Other factors also enter in, however.

Many things to be learned as habitual responses to situations have logical associations: the words of a poem; red and green are complementary colors; lean meat is a body-building food. The first step in such learning is clear understanding. The method—words, pictures, different illustrations, different comparisons—which will be most effective with an individual or group will depend upon previous experiencing. The terms used to clarify a new situation to a country girl may be different from those used with a city girl.

A girl who has lived with small children has a different background from one who has had no intimate contact with them. Clear understanding prevents the learning even temporarily of wrong associations; the little country boy does not then pray, "Deliver us from eagles," nor does the home economics student write, "Vitamins are invisible microbes found on all green vegetables." Use of these fixed associations in a series of activities increases the permanency of learning. Bringing out new relationships makes the learning more flexible. A recognition of general principles grows out of an understanding of relationships. Definitions may be arrived at for carbohydrates, a tailored dress, a home.

In testing for the acquiring of motor skills and fixed associations, the teacher and the pupils should examine both the way of working and the result. If the nicely prepared meal takes two hours to cook when one hour would have been sufficient, there is learning yet to be acquired. Fixed associations are frequently tested by the question-and-answer method or by checking, thus explaining in part the popularity of certain forms of objective tests. Specific responses are valuable as they are used in more complex situations. They should be tested through providing situations in which they will be used. The correct application of the learning is evidence that the material is understood in its relation to new and different situations, that it has been learned. Motor skills and fixed associations, however, are important enough for the class to take time to learn them correctly when the need for them arises in school activities, rather than to leave their attainment to the uncertainty of incidental learning.

Acquiring Special Abilities

The broadened meaning of special ability to include knowing when an ability should be used and setting a standard of attainment should be kept in mind. It may apply to such simple things as ability to make a set-in pocket and to such complicated situations as ability to buy a house. It may refer to such general procedures as ability to think, which in use, however, always refers to a specific situation. The objectives of home economics will be set in terms of the more essential and thus more complex abilities.

In the case of the set-in pocket, it may be easy to decide that a certain type of garment calls for this kind of pocket, to establish a standard toward which to work, and to find out the techniques and knowledge necessary to make it. Two or three practices may perfect the skill to the point where it is safe to try it on a garment. The ability to get along with people or to buy a home is much more complicated. Many different types of behavior must be perfected before one has the ability to live happily and understandingly with others. Many questions must be answered and much information secured before a decision can be reached as to when it is desirable to buy a home. A background of experience, direct or vicarious, concerning buying homes must be built up and points bearing on buying considered. The criteria for measuring progress in learning should be set up in both cases in terms of meeting the needs of a particular group.

Special abilities are outcomes of large learning units. Many specific habits and skills, other abilities, and general behavior patterns may contribute to the learning of a particular ability. Appreciations, ideals, attitudes, standards, and values may enter in. The suggestions for acquiring specific habits and skills by using in different situations, seeing general principles, and recognizing relationships are all steps to be used in acquiring special abilities. Attention should be given also to providing situations in which judgment is developed in selecting procedures and in setting up criteria for measuring accomplishment. Individual initiative and independence should be emphasized. The developing of the special ability of thinking will be discussed in a later chapter.

General Behavior Patterns

Ideals and attitudes, interests and tastes, prejudices and preferences are common names for different aspects of this type of learning. General behavior patterns seem to be those carry-overs from experiences which make what is called individuality, personality, character. The individual is not born with these characteristics. The emotional element enters very strongly into their learning. Individuals hold to their prejudices with a great deal of feeling, go to great lengths to follow their interests, work hard to shape life

to their ideals. Not only must the teacher attempt to teach these qualities by planning definite teaching situations but also she must recognize that all the activities of the school, as well as life outside, contribute to the forming of these general behavior patterns. Both the teacher who is temperamental, passes up cheating, and shows favoritism in handling school problems and the teacher whose pupil relationships are governed by an understanding of people, an appreciation of different points of view, and a sympathy for their difficulties are teaching more by example than by anything either puts into words.

The teacher should provide learning situations which consciously call for the development of worth-while personal characteristics along with other learning, should work for an understanding and appreciation of their meaning in everyday life, and should attempt to show their worth in terms of satisfaction both to the individual and society. The individual must have, in addition to intellectual understanding and emotional appreciation, a desire to reach certain ends for himself. In a study of personal relationships, the teacher may want the girls to decide upon the characteristics of an all-'round girl and to have the desire and ability to become that type of girl. She will want them to see these qualities in terms of behavior, in various relationships with their parents, brothers and sisters, strangers, shop employees, classmates, in situations in which they have been defeated, in which they have won and could boast about it, in which the opportunity to be unfair or to cheat presents itself.

Charters has set up steps for the teaching of ideals.[6] Modifications of these steps are suggested here for the development of those qualities—ideals and other qualities—which in the end make general behavior patterns. The teacher will find that such qualities can be developed most easily by arousing the desire to attain the quality, bringing the individual to see its worthwhileness; studying the situation to discover both where the individual stands in relation to realizing the characteristic and what the opportunities are for acquiring it; setting up a working program, seeing what the teacher needs to do in helping with the achievement of the

[6] W. W. Charters, *The Teaching of Ideals*, pp. 5-13. The Macmillan Company. 1927. Reprinted by permission of the publisher.

behavior pattern and what the pupil can do for herself; using the quality frequently, making many opportunities for growth in attainment; seeing the relationship of conduct in specific situations to larger aspects of living, working for integration of beliefs and behavior, reconstruction of standards and values as changing conditions demand them.

Ideals, attitudes, interests, and appreciations have been taught formally and tested formally, and, because conduct in life situations was not then governed by these qualities, many people have thought that they could not be taught in school. More recently the belief has been growing that this type of learning can be developed throughout formal education and that it must be done if the development of personality is not to be left to chance. This learning must both be taught and tested in real-life activities, must prove that it is functional. The fundamental purpose of the school is to promote the growth of an individual who can be depended upon to act in those ways which society calls "good." The difficulty is not so much that these things cannot be taught, but rather that children and youth are told one thing and see adults living with apparent success by a code quite different from the one they are advocating for others. Some behavior patterns will show up as only partially achieved. They will function in one situation and not in another. A man is thoughtful of his family and friends and inconsiderate of those with whom he works. He may be careful of personal and business property and abuse that belonging to the public. An individual may be said to have acquired a behavior pattern in a form to control intelligently future action when he has become aware of its basic principles, recognizes situations calling for its use, and feels strongly concerning its application, satisfied when it has been used and dissatisfied when it has not. That these behavior patterns contribute to achieving the ways of democracy is extremely important.

The development of the scientific attitude, a general behavior pattern, is discussed in a later chapter. This and the development of the ability to think are presented not to give type procedures to be used in attaining either general behavior patterns or special abilities but because the scientific attitude and the ability to

think are essential modes of behavior in reaching the objectives set up for an educational program.

The newer conception of learning as growth of the individual changes the emphasis concerning conditions favorable to learning. The individual takes a more dynamic place. Guidance is to be given by the teacher as needed and of the kind needed. It should occupy an in-between position—neither destroying initiative on the part of students nor expecting more of them on their own than they have the background for doing. The problem of learning is many-sided. "Zestful, purposeful living, in the degree that it is present, seems to make best for learning."[7] Such living calls for a dynamic philosophy of education and a dynamic teacher.

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CHAPTER VII

THE DESIRE TO LEARN

One needs only to see high-school boys and girls pursuing a goal that keenly interests them to realize the value in getting them to want to learn, whether it be in school or out. The learning of the normal child during his first few years represents remarkable growth. He neither understands all he asks nor remembers all he is told, but his desire to learn is quite overwhelming if one stops to think about it. If this desire were directed and cultivated, the life of the child in school, as well as that of the adult after formal education is over, would be quite different from what it is now.

Adults seem to enjoy satisfying the curiosity of the very young. They take pride in their desire to know about things and to learn to do things. As children grow older, some adults continue their willingness to help them find answers to their problems, arouse interest in new fields, point to values which might be overlooked, and help evaluate the many avenues of activity opening before them. Many parents and teachers, however, on the other hand, demand conformity as children mature. They are unwilling to be searchers with them for new truths, seeing security for them and for their children in following old patterns. And yet, the person who will get most out of life and in turn have most to give is the one who constantly seeks new knowledge and better ways of meeting situations. The strength and nature of his motivation may vary, sometimes being no more than idle curiosity or casual interest. The motivation which means most arises from a feeling of need or a desire to master a situation. Learning is easiest and most worth while when its values are within the experience and so recognized by the student. Learning brought about by force or motivated by extrinsic values is uneconomical, usually has unpleasant attendant learnings, and may even be miseducative.

Interests as used in this discussion refer to wants, desires, and concerns which seem sufficiently important to the individual to

call forth real work for their attainment. Except when so qualified, interest does not refer to casual or transitory interests. It should also be borne in mind that the adult may not always see the interests of children and youth as important, nor will they themselves have the same interests over a period of years.

The interests followed by children in free time and the source of these interests are valuable guides for adults. Maturing is also a factor. The small child is individualistic and imitative. As he grows older, his interest in activity increases for a time, followed by team play in the early adolescent years and the developing of sex-social interests in later adolescence. The mentally gifted read more and, on the whole, engage less in social activities. The physical environment and the nature and extent of the experiences the individual has had will influence his interests. Social conditioning is an important factor in the natural development of interests. Younger children pick up the activities considered good form by the older group. Society approves certain ones for boys and disapproves them for girls. The adult life of a community has its influence on children and youth. Adult interest in home life and home-making is reflected in the interests of those growing up. Commercial opportunities for play and amusements also have their effect.

The School Situation

Most children enter school with enthusiasm. They find life there interesting and exciting. That their interest wanes in the one place set aside by society for learning is a serious indictment of teachers and teaching. Teachers sometimes say that children are different in school than they are out of school. The question might well be raised as to the extent to which this difference would exist if the experiences provided in school seemed as vital to children as those in which they engage outside. A number of factors contribute to lack of interest in school. Without doubt the most important factor is that many children see little worth in what they are doing, either as a step toward a larger goal within the school or for fitting them for life outside. It is the teacher's assignment and the teacher's problem. Classes that recite the last period in the day

compete less with fatigue than with the lure of more worth-while things to be done when school is over, as they judge worthwhileness. Normal, healthy children should not be tired at the end of school, but frequently they are bored and boredom passes for fatigue in the classroom.

Many other things interfere with the desire to learn. The pupils already know what is being presented or they think they do. Twice- and thrice-told tales cannot be depended upon to arouse a burning passion for learning. Sometimes pupils build up a prejudice against a required subject. A teacher in a school that required one year of home economics said it was not necessary to interest the students in the subject because they had to take it anyway. In a second school where the enrolment had dropped materially, the home economics teacher prevailed upon the superintendent to require the work of all first-year high-school girls. A third teacher, finding seventh- and eighth-grade girls disliking home economics, which was required at that level by the state department of education, voluntarily worked out experiences in home living with the elementary teachers in order to build an interest in formal home economics later.

Some good students mislead both teacher and parents in regard to their real attitude toward a field or subject. They excel according to the standards set up, recite well, plan a good menu, arrange a pleasing floor plan. They get good marks, and dismiss the subject from their minds as they leave the classroom. Their desire is to please the teacher, stand well in the class, achieve for the fun of achieving. They have no interest growing out of intrinsic values in the field.

Results alone, even when desirable, are only one measure of interest. The methods by which the results are secured and the attitude toward the particular learning and toward further learning are important factors in evaluating a teaching situation. Students really interested in their work will bring problems to class to solve, bring materials to help others, report voluntarily on success outside of school, spend free time in the department. They will raise pertinent questions in class, doubt authority, be unwilling to drop a problem until satisfied with the solution. They will

appreciate the approval and praise of the teacher, but only when their work merits it.

The teacher of home economics faces a peculiar problem in the matter of arousing interest. Partly because of the material with which it deals and partly because of the difference between home economics and most of the activities of the school, those who take home economics as an elective may be enthusiastic about what is offered when it does not deserve such favorable attention. Home economics teachers must guard against letting the interests of pupils blind them to judging critically the worthwhileness of the experiences being offered—the real interest which they hold. The teacher's problem is twofold: to provide educational experiences that will meet the needs and interests which students already recognize and to use their recognized concerns to lead into larger and richer experiences which the teacher knows are important but in which the students have not yet felt an interest.

Interest and Formal Education

Interest is fundamental to learning. Interest varies in degree from idle curiosity and casual interest to that aroused by a feeling of need or desire to master a situation. Casual interests may be made the approach to developing more permanent and worthwhile interests. The kind of interests secured affects the worth of the learning which results. It also controls the effort put into learning. The girl interested in avoiding punishment or in putting herself in a favored position with the teacher will have different learning outcomes from the one who sees a proposed activity as carrying learning of intrinsic worth to her. The first situation is lacking in genuine interest to her. Dewey says, "Genuine interest, in short, simply means that a person has identified himself with, or has found himself in, a certain course of action."[1] "A child's character, knowledge, and skill are not reconstructed by sitting in a room where events happen. Events must *happen to him*, in a way to bring a full and interested response. It is altogether possible for the child to be present physically, yet absent

[1] John Dewey, *Interest and Effort in Education,* p. 43. Houghton Mifflin Company. 1913.

mentally. He may be indifferent to school life, or his mind may be focused on something remote from the classroom."[2]

Activities should be selected on the basis of the student's real concern in doing them and in learning from them. The teacher, desiring to maintain genuine interest throughout, will find these criteria helpful in planning activities. The activity should be of vital concern to the learner and should be planned cooperatively with him. It should be within his capacity to do successfully with reasonable effort. The growth which will result should be apparent and progress in learning readily recognized as work goes on. Working at the activity should provide pleasure, both the joy of adventure and the joy of achievement. It should have social approval. The time span should be of sufficient length and the difficulty of sufficient depth to challenge real effort.

Interest in learning has been secured and held by incentives extrinsic to the learning itself. Pupils, not interested in an activity, have worked for grades because they have been made to seem important. Competition between the members of a class in which only one can win has been encouraged, and pupils have worked alone to excel. Prizes have been used as motivating forces. Fear of punishment, ridicule, and a teacher's sarcasm have often been the drive behind getting the lesson. The teacher should not select teaching materials and then search for some way in which to make them interesting. The teacher may need many times to direct students to recognize values in experiences outside their immediate interests. The worth for them, however, should be intrinsic in the activity.

Teachers have a responsibility for knowing present interests and for enriching them to insure their worthwhileness; they should also open up new interests. Education can set no more important goal than to stimulate the desire to learn in ways personally and socially desirable until it becomes a driving force within the individual. The teacher must be alert to the whole teaching situation, able to evaluate material to be offered and to present it at the interest and ability level of the group. In home economics, there is danger of material's being too easy as well as too hard. Learning acquired elsewhere is often overlooked. Just as home

[2] *Ibid.*, p. viii.

economics makes application of principles developed in other fields, so other fields draw on home economics. Interest aroused in science and social science may be carried further, brought closer to the everyday living of students in the home economics classes. Many extra-school activities—Girl Scouts, 4-H Clubs—also use materials from this same field. No line of demarcation should be placed between these various activities, but the teacher should take into account what the group has learned or is learning elsewhere.

Other problems arise. The girl in high school has fixed attitudes and habits in regard to learning. Some may be undesirable and must be replaced by others if the purposes of education are to be realized. What the girl considers learning may fall far short of understanding underlying principles, perceiving relationships, reconstructing values and standards, integrating experiences. Her first need may be to secure a new conception of learning. Common learning habits for which new ones should be substituted are dependence upon teacher planning and initiative, acceptance of knowledge as valuable for its own sake, thinking of school learning as unrelated to life. The desire to learn is not easily developed in an individual inclined to imitate, to wait to find out what the teacher wants, and to consider the *subject* finished when the term is over. The teacher will need to develop skill in judging teaching situations and in recognizing motives controlling learning. She will need to have at her command rich resources for developing the desire to learn, recognizing that different avenues will arouse interest in different individuals. Success in achievement arouses interest in attacking other and more difficult problems. The teacher's genuine interest in a student and what concerns him is an important influence in motivating him to learn.

Building on Curiosity and Casual Interest

Learning of the highest order takes place only as new experiences become meaningful in terms of previous learning. The desire to learn may be built up from very small beginnings. The girls in a home economics class knew what they wanted to do but they had shown little interest in the *why* of things during their first year. They did experiments when assigned, but with little

of the enthusiasm with which they cooked or sewed. The teacher had a feeling that food to eat and clothes to wear were the real goals behind their desire to take home economics, although they were required to do many other things. She felt certain that they were missing many valuable learnings now, and that much that she had emphasized would be forgotten because its relationship to life had been largely passed over in the pupils' minds.

Most of the girls elected the work a second year, and the teacher let them begin with food preparation, thus meeting them on their own ground in something they especially liked. Some petri dishes of sterilized gelatin were on a table. A jar was exposed at the end of the period when the girls began sweeping the room. The next day they were asked to try a floor brush and a second jar was exposed. In reply to their questioning the teacher told them that she was trying to find out the best way of cleaning the room since a class came in the next period and they had to stay in while it was being cleaned. Some of the girls began watching the petri dishes. They even made some suggestions about things they could do to keep the room cleaner.

A little later several squares of cake were on the table. The teacher said she had been trying different methods of combining the ingredients—creaming the fat and sugar, beating the whole egg and beating yolks and whites separately. Another day she was testing samples of material for a dress. The silk she liked most proved to be not silk at all. The girls got in the habit of asking what she was doing and why she was doing it until one day a girl wanted to know why they were not doing those things in class since they needed to know them, too. Curiosity had opened the way to an entirely new field of knowledge applied to home and personal problems. *Why* became important.

A teacher wishing to arouse interest in textile study which the girls knew they were to have later, secured a child's dress, attractive in style and color but literally split into shreds. The dress was lying on a table when the class came in. The first response was to the beauty of the dress. The second, upon closer examination, was to its tattered condition; and they asked what had happened to it. The teacher told them that nothing had happened to the dress, that it was the way the cloth was made. The girls said at once that

they did not want that kind of material and asked what they should know so as not to buy cloth like that.

Another day a book on social conduct was on a sewing table. A girl, waiting to use a sewing machine, picked it up. Later she asked permission to take it home. The next day she wanted to discuss several points in the book. Other girls asked to read it, and soon they were discussing good manners and social conduct, a phase of home economics the teacher had hesitated to take up with this particular group.

A principal wanted to require home economics of a certain grade in high school. The mothers were not much in favor of it, and the girls did not see any special reason for learning to cook at school, at least not while the stores carried canned goods and the delicatessen sold potato salad and boiled ham. The girls were quite certain that any woman could cook if she had to do it. The teacher decided to give a series of demonstrations illustrating different principles of cookery. She planned most carefully. Her techniques were excellent. She talked interestingly about meal planning, food combinations, and different ways of cookery while she measured accurately, combined skilfully, and cooked her products. The biscuits were light as a feather, the cream puffs perfect, the pastry crisp and tender, the frozen dessert a dream of delight. Their mothers did not cook with such sureness, and such foods could not be bought at the delicatessen. Five such lessons were planned, but at the end of three, the girls were begging to cook, and, as long as they took home economics, they saw the preparation of food as an art and a science demanding both skill and knowledge.

Making Use of a Feeling of Need

Most learning outside the school is informal and, although unorganized, much of it is more permanent than that acquired by formal means. This is due largely to a genuine interest growing out of the need for it in the carrying out of a particular activity. Such learning is usually incidental to the reaching of another goal which is seen as important by the individual. The project

method of teaching developed out of an appreciation of this way of learning.

Knowing that high-school girls desire to look well and be attractive, a teacher sent them to various sources to find out how this could be accomplished. They talked with doctors and beauty specialists; they read articles in medical journals and beauty columns. The points stressed included poise; sound physical and mental health; cleanliness; attractive, becoming, well-cared-for clothing; adequate and suitable food; desirable habits of living. Using their findings as an introduction to a home economics course, the girls saw home economics as offering learning valuable in meeting their needs. Most high-school girls want more clothes than their parents can afford to give them. Brought to realize that knowledge of design, materials, and cost, accompanied by proficiency in clothing construction, may lead to being well dressed on the money available, they will give unlimited time willingly to the study of these problems.

The teacher may have to direct attention first to the recognition of a need. A group of girls, allowed to charge purchases at the store, rarely asked what things cost. They had no desire to know prices or what had to be bought with the family income. Keeping accounts, making budgets, and watching for sales were not of the slightest interest to them.

A friend of the teacher was keeping fairly accurate accounts under some seven or eight rather general headings. The husband held a political office with a stated salary. John Jr. was two years old. They wanted eventually to go into fruit and berry farming and gardening. The problem before them was whether to begin buying an abandoned farm now and start developing it or to try to buy an improved farm when he was through holding office. At the rate they were going they would never be able to do either. Other people did: what was wrong with them?

It was not difficult for high-school girls to imagine themselves facing just such a problem a few years hence. It was much more real to them than their parents' problems or their own while they were being supported by their parents. The home economics teacher asked permission to present these problems to the class. The clothing budget worked out by one group used almost half

the income; the food budget planned by a second group took the rest. Those who were planning for the upkeep of the house, recreation, and savings protested the extravagance of these other groups, and the whole class went to work on a more realistic basis. The girls secured information from their parents concerning costs, buying at sales and in quantity, rent and insurance. The clothing budget was revised. One girl said that she never intended to fuss again when she had to wear a made-over dress. Financing, both personal and family, became a popular phase of home economics and never lost its interest.

Interest through Challenging Growth

Teachers are told that the work planned should be within the ability of the pupils to do successfully. Less frequently is their attention called to the importance of the work's offering a challenge for growth. The girl should see each activity selected as worth doing, demanding real effort, offering a chance to improve her own record or to do better than the group preceding. Each year a teacher saved budgets made, house plans drawn, costumes designed, menus worked out, home project plans and reports. Some of these plans were good; others fell short in one way or another. The teacher found many uses for this material.

The members of a class that was discussing house plans were ready to select individual plans to suit the family situation. Modifying a plan was not an easy job. Adding two bedrooms to suit the larger family resulted in a kitchen without cross ventilation or a bedroom which could be entered only through another bedroom. Although such points were discussed, the teacher had to make many suggestions, too many she thought, if the final plan was at all suitable. The next year she had both original and modified plans from the previous class. The new group checked the final plans by the standards they had set up as desirable for a home and then undertook to trace back to the original plan to find the difficulty when plans were not satisfactory. Frequently they found that a plan should not have been enlarged or the rooms rearranged. Some, however, began to question the standards they had set as possible of being realized in moderate- and low-cost housing.

In another school the learning units were arranged with certain basic activities to be carried out by all the class unless a girl could submit evidence that she already knew how to do a particular thing. In addition, each unit offered an opportunity for other learnings along lines of special interest or need. A girl who handled patterns well worked out her new pattern from a plain one on hand instead of buying one. Another girl added hand trimming to her undergarments. Beautifully tailored silk slips and nightgowns were borrowed from a store to interest the girls in a higher quality of work on their cotton garments so that they might later use successfully the more expensive materials at home.

In the same school an advanced class was grouped for the foods unit according to individual ability in food preparation. The group with the most experience and greatest skill skipped steps, did twice as much some days, frequently worked on special problems such as planning menus for deficiency diseases or checking recipes to be used in the first-year class or the lunchroom. The group with the least experience tried hard to get good products, felt more responsibility for the results when there was no one more experienced in the group to take the lead, and, since real effort was appreciated, did their best.

The Desire To Learn in Various Teaching Situations

The "interest approach" in teaching has been overworked. Frequently a teacher tells or reads a story, shows some illustrative material, and then passes on to the body of a lesson of no more real interest to the pupils after this artificial introduction than it would have been without it. Throughout the teaching experience, a teacher needs to be alert to arouse and encourage a serious desire to learn rather than to attract superficial interest.

A teacher who was dissatisfied with the interest shown by a beginning class the previous year planned an introductory unit which would enable her to get acquainted with the girls and which would at the same time broaden their outlook on home economics. An advanced class was asked to assist in planning and setting up an exhibit which would both interest a beginning group and give them a notion of the scope of the work to follow.

The exhibit centered on questions accompanied by illustrative material from the files of the department and the work of the girls the previous year. The questions included: Are you an all-'round girl? Are you satisfied with your personal appearance? Which colors do you wear most? Which should you? Have you tried to fix up your room? How do you get along with other people? Can you make pies like those that grandmother used to make? The beginning class studied the exhibit informally, and then each girl listed those things she especially wished and needed to learn.

An advanced class in another school had an idea that the year's work was to begin with the study of children, and they did not want such a unit. A protest might not do any good, but the teacher was new and it was worth trying. The teacher had planned to use the first few days for a somewhat informal getting acquainted in order to find out pupil needs and interests and for pretesting. This was especially important since she was new in the school. They said at once that they knew too much about children and that they wanted to sew. The teacher had been visiting in the homes previous to the opening of school and was not wholly unprepared for this. Nor had she overlooked the opportunity to make contacts with her school neighbors who had small children. The next two days were busy ones outside of school. Fortunately the ground-floor department opened on a grassy court. A sandbox was hastily put together by the shop teacher and a load of sand secured. The mothers of eight small children were asked to lend them and some toys for an hour and a half three mornings a week.

The second morning after the outburst, the teacher, watching a group of children playing in and around the sandbox, seemed reluctant to leave them even to teach an interested class sewing. The class stopped. The teacher said that the girls who wished might stay for a while on the steps or the walk. The others would find fashion books on the tables from which to select patterns or they could wait until tomorrow to do that. They all stayed. The teacher helped the children now and then and asked a girl or two to assist in different situations. Some of the class took the children home at the end of the hour. The teacher said that the children had been invited to come again Friday and that she would like

volunteers to look after and help them. So many wanted to do it that it was decided to discuss ways of meeting behavior problems with small children before going on with their other work. Several articles were found in the current magazines and the files. The girls chose different ones to read. The fashion magazines were forgotten for several weeks while problems of child development were studied. Child-care projects were selected by several girls. In a later unit, this group severely criticized house plans which made no provision for meeting the needs of small children.

The situation in a rural senior high school which called for arousing interest was due mainly to the large number of pupils' coming from small high schools for their last three years of work. Many came knowing nothing about home economics. They said they knew how to cook and sew, or that they could learn such things at home. Their parents did not send them to school to waste time on that. Frequently, after the year was well started, girls would want to change to home economics. To prevent this from happening again, the teacher and the girls in an advanced class arranged for small groups to visit the junior high schools in the spring to tell them about home economics and to show them some of their work. A tea and exhibit were given at the department for those girls already in that school who would be eligible for the work the next year. The teacher also secured the names of all these girls and visited them during the summer in connection with her regular work in supervising home projects.

Often home practice work is a definite assignment by the teacher. Frequently a home project is merely a job to be done and not an activity growing out of class instruction. Many times such work is below a standard considered acceptable for similar activities carried on in class. Second-year girls having good projects in operation were asked to invite girls in beginning classes to visit them. A discussion naturally followed as to home practice and home project work, the school units to which the different aspects of home work were related, the sources of additional information which had been needed, and the standards set up for the finished product. The girls became interested in filed reports of projects of previous classes and soon took the initiative in planning home experiences which grew naturally out of class instruction.

CHAPTER VIII

THE DESIRE TO KNOW THE TRUTH

THE SCIENTIFIC ATTITUDE

The desire to learn is not enough. It must be accompanied by a desire to know the truth. The scientific attitude and scientific method are comparatively new tools in education. The scientific attitude is marked by the possession of intellectual curiosity, the doubting of accepted beliefs without supporting evidence, the lack of preconceived answers, and the avoidance of the influences of personal bias. It is progressive, seeing new solutions as well as new problems in the future. It is accompanied by self-confidence, a belief in one's ability to find the answer, and a willingness to follow uncharted paths. It calls for creative thinking, seeing new meanings in old situations, recognizing relationships not usually observed, and creating new instruments for solving new problems. The scientific attitude calls for accurate and painstaking work, withholding final judgment until the evidence is in, and full recognition of the limitations of the findings. It accepts all conclusions as tentative; a new answer may lie just ahead. The scientific attitude is a general behavior pattern, the outgrowth of many experiences. It should control the individual's approach to all situations.

The scientific attitude may be applied to all areas of man's activities. Its fundamental value, however, is in its contribution to a philosophy of life, a point of view entirely different from the commonly accepted one of the very recent past. Man sees a world on which he can depend, an order of things in which he does count. He need not appease nature by forms of worship; but he can, through understanding it, work with it or cause it to work for him to make material living increasingly richer and more abundant. He sees himself as a being capable of continued growth in an everchanging world, a world to be conquered by his in-

telligence and to be ruled by his ideas of worth. He sees a society which he is responsible for making into a social order that will insure the opportunity for the self-realization of all within it. Disease and famine and war must not stalk the earth if man can remove them; and he believes he can. Unemployment with its accompanying destitution and weakening of man's faith in himself must not continue, for man has conquered what were in their day more difficult problems. Ignorance must be removed so that all men may use the findings of science and have the scientific attitude toward life.

The scientific attitude, applied to the solving of problems, becomes the scientific method. The scientific method is orderly, exact thinking. It has two uses in problem solving. Where an exact answer is possible, it provides accurate, valid data as a basis for arriving at such an answer. Whoever solves such a problem will arrive at the same answer. There are no exceptions that prove the rule. The scientific method also has value in collecting data for solving those problems in which the final answer depends upon individual personal choice. It will provide data as to the wearing qualities of different materials, the nutritive values of different foods, but it will not help in deciding whether to buy a blue dress or a green one or whether to have corned beef and cabbage or roast pork for dinner. Individual standards and values enter into the final solution of such problems. Different people will make different choices. Developing the ability to think will be taken up in the next chapter. The present discussion will concern itself in the main with the direct influence of the scientific attitude in teaching and how it can be developed in pupils.

There are those today who would deny the worth of the scientific attitude, refuse to accept the findings of the scientific method. They would deny to man the right to think scientifically or to use the results of scientific study. They see themselves as superior, not through earned and honest achievement but simply by being. The values which such people cherish, which they would have for themselves even as they would keep them from other people, and their refusal to approach problems with a scientific attitude or to use the scientific method are two of the tragedies

of the present day. Cultural and social intolerance vanishes when its claims are examined in the light of the scientific attitude.

The Scientific Attitude and Home Economics

The teacher who has developed the scientific attitude will be influenced by it in all that she does. The setting up of the objectives and the planning of experiences will be based on an evaluation of all the evidence. Activities will be planned so as to develop the scientific attitude—a necessary step if the ways of democracy are to be achieved. There will be no fixed program. The teacher will endeavor to know the pupils' problems, encourage them to recognize their problems and to have both the desire and skill to reach their own tested solutions. Pupils take many personal and home situations for granted. They wish things were different, but it has not occurred to them that they can help in making them different.

Significant changes will need to take place in the teacher-pupil relationship. Teachers and pupils must be partners in the business of seeking truth. Because of her maturity and broader contacts, the teacher will have the responsibility for seeing that wide areas of experience are opened up for study. She will need to direct to problems of most worth, point to fields to be explored, and suggest sources of help. She must also see that all sides are considered and that the evidence is adequate to warrant the conclusions accepted. The teacher will not be seen as authority to assign problems or book lessons; neither will she express opinions which are to pass unquestioned nor will she give final, dogmatic answers to pupil problems. Her position must be that of a co-worker in a search for the best answer now possible to problems which are important to the learner. This represents not only a different teacher-pupil relationship from that now existing in the usual type of school but also a more vital one. Pupil intellectual independence can be reached only through increased pupil freedom and initiative. The girl in home economics must assume greater responsibility for determining what she studies, how she studies, and when she studies. There will be less competition and more cooperation. Each individual will strive to do her best in her own way rather

than to excel over others for the sake of excelling or to imitate blindly. Answer finding will replace answer learning.

Pupils will need to have their attention called to the breadth of home economics and to the wide range of problems it can help in solving. They should see the curriculum as a growing program, to be modified as conditions change, as new needs arise, as other interests develop. Harmful habits must give way to helpful ones in developing the desire to know the truth. No longer can the word of the teacher be accepted as true simply because it is the word of the teacher. No longer can the lesson be reciting an assignment in the textbook instead of solving a problem in which the book is one source of evidence. Prejudice and bias must cease to be the basis of opinion, and yet uncertainty and lack of direction must not take their place. The teacher who accepts the challenge to develop the scientific attitude has no easy task ahead of her. The return, however, in pupil growth will do much to make teaching a satisfying vocation instead of just a job as it has been to many teachers.

Using a Question Raised in Class

A teacher's awareness of the classroom opportunities for developing the scientific attitude is important. A member of a class studying foods asked the teacher if she thought a noon lunch essential. The girl said that she wasn't hungry but that her mother fussed because she didn't eat lunch. The teacher replied that such a question could not be answered offhand, that some babies began with eight meals a day and that dogs often had only one. The class knew a few persons who ate only two meals regularly, although that was not common practice. The teacher told them that such matters were controlled largely by custom, that people in some countries ate as many as five meals daily whereas others ate only two. The teacher then asked the group what the really important question was in regard to food. The girls said that it was the amount and kind of food eaten and not the number of meals. Upon being asked how her question could be answered, Mary said it would be necessary to find out if she were getting enough of the right kind of food by her present eating habits.

The whole class had shown so much interest in the brief discussion that the teacher wanted to know if all the girls would like to work on the problem. More than half were not eating lunch regularly on school days; others were not eating breakfast; and all said that their mothers scolded frequently about their eating habits. The girls then set to work to find out their food requirements, what foods would satisfy these demands, and whether they were getting an adequate amount of these foods. Those who were not getting enough food and were eating only two meals undertook to replan those meals to meet their requirements. They read, they figured, and they kept account of what they ate. The teacher raised questions. She suggested some references. In a short time most of the girls had reached the conclusion that their food habits left much to be desired and that three meals daily were better than two for them.

One girl admitted that she had really thought all the time that she needed a lunch on school days for she always ate at noon when she was home. The real difficulty was that she didn't like a lunch wrapped in paper and it was a bother to have to carry a lunch box home at night. The girls did some more investigating and settled on the plan of having fruit and milk delivered at school from a nearby grocery and of bringing sandwiches from home. They learned to make sandwiches that were appetizing and satisfying and to wrap them carefully. By showing their parents that such a lunch would cost no more than they had been spending for candy and drinks, they secured parental approval of their plans.

Class Discussion Leading to Individual Problem Solving

A learning unit centering around the question, What are the clothing needs of high-school girls in X —? began with a group discussion concerning community and home activities and their influence on the kind of clothing needed. Questions were raised as to whether church and school clothes should be the same, what to do with party shoes when no longer good enough for the purpose for which purchased, what to wear at home for everyday, how many different dresses were needed for school. Girls expressed opinions, but until the teacher insisted upon reasons the answers

often represented an attempt to satisfy the teacher or to make a good impression upon their classmates rather than a search for the best answer for them as individuals. The teacher also had the responsibility for seeing that basic principles were discovered in order that their learning would be useful in thinking through other clothing problems as they arose.

As these class discussions went on, each girl studied her own wardrobe, set her own standards, and found out what clothes she had that needed attention. She decided what she should buy ready-made and what she should make herself and how much she could and should pay for different garments. Each girl also learned to make those garments which she had decided to make instead of buying ready-made. The teacher and the group in general discussion suggested points to consider but no rules were handed out or arrived at by the class for everyone to follow. Each girl found her own answers. She alone decided which factors should and must influence her decision. The teacher checked each girl's thinking to insure consideration of all available, pertinent information interpreted to her own situation, but not to influence the decision she made.

The Teacher Initiates a Unit

In her raising of questions leading to the development of a learning unit, the teacher may do much in developing the scientific attitude. A class beginning a unit in the study of foods was asked how important good health is and what factors influence it. The students said that people who are sick do not do good work; that sickness was selfishness if it could be prevented or cured. They also said that food, rest, exercise, and cleanliness affected one's health. They found their answers in previous hygiene and general-science courses, in magazine articles, in family practices and experiences, and in things the family doctor had said. Whenever a point had to do with food, the teacher encouraged further discussion. They already knew that the different kinds of food include proteins, starches, sugars, fats, and minerals, and that these foods are valuable for different purposes.

Since proteins were mentioned first, the teacher asked for the

names of protein foods. String beans and peas were mentioned. Some one wanted to know which had the more protein. The teacher referred the question to the girls who had given the answers. Each seemed to think it necessary to stand by the one she had given, although no reasons were brought out to support either answer. Class opinions were asked for: fourteen favored string beans; two, peas. The girl who had mentioned string beans had a more convincing manner. The teacher wanted to know if opinion unsupported by evidence was enough. The girls then asked how they could find out the correct answer and were referred to a chart indicating the nutritive composition of common foods. Fresh peas were found to contain slightly more protein than string beans. One girl discovered that dry beans had more than either and asked if it would not be better to eat them. The girl who had first mentioned string beans was not entirely convinced and wanted to know why the doctor had told her mother to eat them if other foods were better. The class then looked for other qualities and found string beans rich in vitamins and minerals, also that fresh peas were more valuable than dry beans on that count. As the period closed, one girl voiced the rather evident opinion of the group by saying that she now realized that it was important to study what to eat.

In this situation, previous knowledge and experience were brought to bear on a new problem. Arguments and opinion were not allowed to take the place of established facts. The class learned to go to reliable sources of information. A girl, giving a wrong answer, thought back to the experience which had led her astray and straightened the matter out. The teacher raised doubts, questioned steps taken, and suggested sources of help, but gave no final answers herself and accepted none, even though correct, without facts to support them. Class situations handled in such a manner will do much in developing the scientific attitude and the ability to use the scientific method.

Development through Laboratory Work

Laboratory work in foods is frequently group work with no one seeing the whole job through. Often the teacher assigns the dish

to be prepared, the method to be used, and the individual to carry out each detail. She then gives close supervision so that nothing is spoiled. A good product rather than a way of working is the primary aim. The demonstration in which the girls watch closely and repeat the exact procedure has little learning value either. Other weaknesses common in laboratory teaching are failure to appreciate those techniques which can be developed only through individual work and failure to recognize the minimum below which a recipe cannot be reduced and the desired learning take place.

Resourcefulness, independence, creative thinking, all characteristics of the scientific attitude can be developed in laboratory classes as well as in other classroom procedures. In one class, the teacher asked the pupils to bring pastry recipes from home. Having organized such materials before for class discussion, the students placed a list of the ingredients on the board with the amounts for each recipe in a separate column. Differences in the amount of flour, fat, and water showed up. One recipe called for hot water and another for baking powder. The girls questioned these two variations, although Mary said that her mother always used baking powder. Jane had found the recipe using hot water in a magazine. Her mother knew nothing about hot-water pastry and suggested that she take the recipe to school to try out. The girls favored the recipes that used more fat in spite of their admission that their mothers made good pastry with smaller amounts. A reference assigned by the teacher also contained the statement that the amount of fat determined the flakiness of the pastry, and the way of making, the tenderness.

The directions for making were the same for all recipes except the one using hot water. The girls agreed that two of them should make hot-water pastry and that two should use baking powder. The other girls paired off according to the similarity of their recipes, each group of two selecting one of the recipes to use so that each would be checked. The teacher asked two girls whose recipes were much like those of another group to use one of hers. All recipes were to be reduced to two-thirds of a cup of flour as that would give sufficient pastry for the pans they were using and leave a sample for judging. Asked if they had any questions,

several students wanted to know what "cutting in fat" meant. One girl said that her mother had told her that adding the liquid was the most important step in making pastry. The teacher agreed that these were new things to be learned and that she would show them how she did each one as soon as they had their plan of work and materials ready.

The teacher measured up the necessary ingredients, sifted the flour, and then waited until the girls had their plans made and the ingredients and utensils on hand. As they came together, she asked if they had any questions about their plans. One girl wanted to know when to light the oven. Several thought it should be lighted when they began mixing. Others were in favor of waiting until the dough was ready to roll out. The teacher raised the question as to what would happen if the pastry stood while the oven was heating. Remembering their experience with omelet ready to cook and the pan not hot, two girls predicted similar poor results with pastry. The teacher then asked why pastry and omelet would react the same. The girls soon decided that the pastry mixture would be stiff and without leavening to fall but that the fat would melt if left in a warm place. Some one suggested that each one should start her oven at the time she thought would be right. If it was too hot when the pastry was ready she could cool it off, and if it wasn't hot enough she could wait for it.

The demonstration began with cutting in the fat and with a discussion as to why the recipe called for this procedure. The girls said their mothers used their hands. One girl said that pastry would be better if it were not mixed with the hands. Another thought it should not be handled at all. The teacher reminded them that, although the directions read to handle as little as possible, nothing was said against using their hands in rolling it out. She also told them that she put fat in with her hands, but that she wasn't advising them to do so—at present. One girl volunteered to find out if all directions for pastry making called for cutting in the fat; a second, to find out why this procedure was used.

The teacher began adding the water and asked for a comparison of the method she was using with the one of adding liquid in making muffins. They noticed such points as: the liquid was

being added more slowly, the mixture was not being stirred like a batter, the dough was being kept stiff. The important steps in pastry making were then selected and written on the board. While the pastry was baking, a summarization of the entire day's work was made. This included what they had learned together with a separate list of unanswered questions, questions which they would try to answer the next day. When the samples were baked, there was just enough time left to judge them. Before this lesson, the girls had listed the qualities of good pastry, basing their list on their readings, talks with their mothers, pastry they had eaten, and a pastry shell the teacher had baked for judging purposes.

What happened in such a laboratory period? The girls came in with basic materials for discussion. This included recipes varying both in ingredients and amounts, information about home practices, a doubt concerning the value of the directions in the cookbook because they were not their mothers' ways, and a question about one of the references. They knew the qualities which made good pastry. They had seen, examined, and tasted pastry made by the teacher previous to their own making. The girls asked for the help they needed. Only those steps were demonstrated which represented new processes and which could be best understood by seeing them done. They made their own plans but brought doubtful points to the teacher. She led them to think further, but placed final responsibility on each one for what she did. The pupils were called on for reasons in support of the directions when they differed from home practices. A summary was made at the end of the demonstration to guide their practices. A further summary at the end of the period brought together the conclusions reached and the questions still unanswered. The period ended with the judging of their samples.

Developing a Broader Outlook

The illustrations given have been drawn from the so-called practical side of home economics. This aspect has been largely teacher directed in the past. Social and economic aspects of the subject offer even more opportunities for developing the scientific attitude. The whole field of home economics is affected by

the changing conditions which have changed the needs of people, caused new discoveries to be made and knowledge to be put to new uses. Unsolved problems show up at every turn. Important discoveries are being made, dealing with diet and health, the value of food in curing certain diseases, the preservation of food, the effect of heat on the preparation of food. Women need to develop a questioning attitude concerning the problems of everyday life, the difference which knowledge now available should make in living. Milk as the perfect food is no longer a matter of common agreement. It may depend upon whether the cow is in Ohio or Arizona, has green grass or dry feed. The love apple of a few generations ago was considered poisonous. It became edible a little later, although believed in its raw state to cause cancer. It is now served to the infant as tomato juice, rich in minerals and vitamins. The willingness of many people to follow dietary fads that have no basis in scientific facts represents a serious menace to sound health. Teachers need to know the extent to which pupils hold beliefs which should be questioned. Society is faced with many new problems. It has knowledge enough to feed the world abundantly, and yet people are starving or living below a subsistence level in every quarter of the globe. Such problems point to a need for home economics to reach deeper into the problems of feeding people than it so frequently does.

Similar questions may be raised in every aspect of home economics. What are the present ways of living which may have bearing on the increase of tuberculosis among adolescent girls, on the increased number of mental disorders among adults, on the upturn in the suicide rate among older men? Why is the problem of recreation and leisure-time activities of increasing importance? Shall the individual of the future find happiness in his work or only outside it? What factors in child development may influence adult emotional development? Shall home economics continue to teach how to keep a house clean, or give attention to the smoke nuisance that has increased the burden of cleanliness within the home? What do the intangibles mean in successful homemaking and family living? How far can the homemaker and the individual family divorce themselves from the affairs of the community, the state, and the nation? How far shall home eco-

nomics go in developing a philosophy of life, and what is the relationship of the techniques of living to attaining it? Questions such as these are far-reaching in their possibilities for preparing the individual for immediate living and in developing the scientific attitude toward all problems that may arise. Followed through in home economics teaching, they will make a new world for the high-school girl.

A second body of materials, valuable to the individual and belonging to home economics, which will contribute to a wider outlook on life if presented from this viewpoint includes such problems as the present status of the family, changed home conditions, gainful employment of married women, present-day parent-child relationships, the educational job of the home, the man's share in homemaking. These problems offer interesting and worth-while opportunities for finding out causes and effects in social problems, for following trends, for seeing relationships between situations which often appear to have nothing in common. The history of human progress is written in the development of family life, and nowhere in high-school work can it be made more interesting or can it contribute more in educating youth than in home economics.

Testing and the Scientific Attitude

The job of evaluating growth in attaining the scientific attitude is one for the students as well as the teacher. Experiences should be set up in such a way as constantly to test pupil ability to approach problems open-mindedly, to plan work, to use available materials, to evaluate evidence, to think of new avenues of procedure, and to arrive at the best answer now available. Another opportunity for testing the development of the scientific attitude too valuable to be overlooked lies in the way in which problems of daily living are being met. Does the girl think spilling salt means bad luck, dropping a knife foretells the coming of company? Does she refuse to be vaccinated? Does she buy a dress like her chum's whether it suits her or not? Does she intelligently use fashion or blindly follow fads? Does spending money mean satisfaction or passing pleasure? What is her attitude toward smaller

children, teasing and lying or sympathetic and truthful? Does she give great weight to hearsay and opinions of others, or does she react independently? Is she growing in tolerance, in recognition of individual worth in others. Can she see good in others besides her friends? Is she concerned with the social problems of the day? Does she work wholeheartedly to carry out someone else's plans when these have been accepted by the group? All these things can be found out at the level of a high-school girl's activities through observation and through friendly conversation with the girl as to motives which determine behavior. The best way of all, however, is to enlist the girl's own help in checking changes in behavior which indicates growth in attaining the scientific attitude. Home economics has a wealth of material, useful for living, which will be of most value as its attainment is accompanied by the development of the scientific attitude and by the use of the scientific method in the marshalling of data for the meeting of life situations.

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CHAPTER IX

THINKING AS A TOOL OF EDUCATION

How shall people meet difficulties: trust to luck or follow the crowd? Life is running along smoothly, rather monotonously in fact, the same things to do in the same way: get up in the morning, eat breakfast, read the paper, work all day, attend the movies, and go to bed. Today is going to be just like yesterday. But no, the factory worker hears of a job paying more in another town. The farmer wonders whether to sell his wheat now or keep it until later. Mother is uncertain as to which Billy needs, the doctor or less attention. Mary cannot decide whether to go to college or to work. Bread has gone up. Will it be cheaper to bake it or to buy it? The house the family lives in is to be sold. Shall they buy it or rent another?

People meet the problems which arise daily in various ways. Some individuals ignore them as far as possible. They let things "slide." Others use the same old answers and follow the same practices year after year. They say, "My mother always did it this way." "We go to the lake every summer." "I never eat salad." "I never listen to a symphony program." "I always sell my potatoes as soon as they are dug." Some people see what the neighbors are doing and follow them. Jane goes to an arts college, and Mary does, too. The Browns buy a new car every year, and the Smiths follow the same practice. The Grays move to the country, and the Jones tag along. Sometimes, however, leaving alone is not possible. Past solutions do not work. The neighbor's answer is inadequate; a new one must be found. Thinking can no longer be avoided. And if the individual has neither learned the techniques nor formed the habit of thinking, it is a difficult and painful process.

Essential Steps in Thinking

Thinking is finding for oneself the best answer to a problem. Facing a problem does not necessarily demand thinking nor does it determine the quality of thinking that will take place. The ability to think—and to think straight—is an essential tool if the democratic way of life is to be attained. It eliminates decisions based on insufficient evidence and the influence of personal bias and prejudice. Thinking may have for its purpose the finding of an exact answer to a situation: the name of a flower or fabric, the difficulty with the radio or vacuum cleaner, the basic principles of protein cookery. Such questions are answered by observing the situation, drawing on previous experiences, collecting pertinent information, testing data as to its relevancy and worth. Persons who work with equal care on such problems will arrive at the same answers. There is a right answer. It should be kept in mind, however, that, in the event that questions such as these are answered directly by securing facts from a book or by asking someone else the answer, no thinking is involved.

Thinking may have to do with the making of a decision as to the best answer under the circumstances: which dress to buy, whether or not to punish Jimmy, how much rent to pay. Such problems draw on the same sources of help as the previous ones, but other factors also enter in. Especially important are the individual's own standards and ideas of values. A certain dress may be considered suitable for office wear by one person and not by another. Two families having the same income may differ in the rent they pay because one family values other things more than a fine dwelling place or living in a restricted area. There is no one right answer. The individual collects and evaluates data, but the final decision depends upon what he considers of most worth. The extent to which an answer is right depends upon how near it measures up in practice to the criteria set by the individual for it. Judgment is an important factor in such decisions. Past learning, whether from direct or vicarious experiences, provides the foundation for making judgments.

Thinking also has to do with the working out of a new answer

through using learning in new ways: the planning of a menu, the designing of a costume, the making of plans for a house. Data are collected and evaluated. Past experiences are considered. Standards of value influence the final answer. An additional factor, however, is most important—the ability to use learning in attaining what is to the individual a novel answer. Creative thinking is the term usually applied to such answers to problems.

"Thinking begins in what may fairly enough be called a *forked-road* situation that is ambiguous, that presents a dilemma, that proposes alternatives."[1] Throughout thinking, experiences of the individual and of others are drawn upon, data studied and accepted or rejected, general principles arrived at, decisions made, and results evaluated. Sound thinking involves the carrying out of basic steps: recognizing and defining the problem, proposing a solution, gathering relevant information, examining and testing data, and accepting an answer. Thinking involves looking at problems in a novel way, seeing materials available for solving them and recognizing clues to additional relevant material. It includes formulating hypotheses, testing them accurately and painstakingly at every step with reliable, conclusive data, experimenting with materials, looking for exceptions, reasoning out the implications of the findings, and following through uninfluenced by personal bias. It necessitates evaluating the plans being made and the work being done, and knowing when adequate, trustworthy data have been collected or developed through experimentation. It requires withholding final judgment until the facts are in, drawing conclusions within the facts, and accepting the conclusions always as tentative.

If the data collected support the solution tentatively set up, the problem is solved. If they disprove it, steps must be retraced to find out what errors have crept in. Another solution may then need to be projected and additional data collected. When all reasonable doubt as to the solution's working has been removed, the problem may be said to be solved. It may then be tried out objectively. Time is essential for thinking. The teacher who wants the answer to follow immediately upon the asking of a question wants memorization of facts rather than thinking. The scientific

[1] John Dewey, *How We Think*, p. 14. D. C. Heath and Company. 1933.

attitude, applied to the solving of problems which have exact answers or to the collecting of exact data in the solving of other types of problems, becomes scientific method.

The more clearly a problem is defined, its limits set, the more quickly can plans for solving it get under way. High-school girls frequently ask the question, "Should I eat breakfast? Mother thinks so, but I don't." Believing strongly that everyone should eat breakfast, some teachers start with this as the problem to be solved. The real problem, however, and one more likely to sound sensible to high-school girls, is, "How much food do I (or a high-school girl) need and by what eating habits can I (or she) best secure it?" Past experiences may lead the person to propose a tentative solution and then to collect data concerning it or data may be collected first and the answer then projected. Past experiences may cause a girl to decide tentatively on somber rather than bright colors for a winter coat. She may, on the other hand, survey her present wardrobe to see what colors will fit in best with what she has; visit stores and read fashion articles to find out what colors are being worn before making tentative plans as to colors she wishes to consider. The ability to see meanings and relationships has much to do with the quickness and sureness with which a problem is solved. Some call this quality insight. The ability to recognize relevancy and validity are other essential factors in thinking.

Having proposed a solution to a problem, it must be examined and tested, and additional information secured if needed to prove the case. A certain amount for rent may seem to be enough. The family members must then consider other needs to see if this amount can be paid and other demands met. They must also find out the kind of living quarters which can be secured for this amount. Examining and testing may be mental—weighing points, reasoning, and trying out in the light of other experiences—or it may be trying out through using materials. "Armchair" thinking based on experiences has value, how much value depends upon the breadth of experience, habits of thinking, ability to see meanings and relationships, knowledge concerning sources of help. Thinking is not a straight-line process. It zigzags back and forth many times from tentative answer to proof, from facts found which

modify the answer to further searching for new facts to verify or disprove the new answer proposed until finally an acceptable answer is found and the problem is solved.

Thinking to be successful must reach a solution. The housewife may not find for herself what is wrong with the sewing machine. Her solution may be that it needs expert attention. The wider the experiences of the individual and the more meanings accumulated from these experiences, the more certainty in thinking and the more quickly the finding of a satisfactory answer. What the teacher has to draw upon in the way of experiences will have much to do with the quality of thinking of the pupils. Immediate recognition of the meaning of a situation does not call for thinking. Frequently, however, this is not true recognition but the jumping to a conclusion with insufficient evidence to support it. This procedure calls for subsequent testing or there is danger of accepting the wrong answer. Still more harmful are the habits of careless thinking: failing to define carefully the problem or to keep it clearly in mind while trying to solve it, accepting half-proved answers, giving too much weighting to certain evidence, failing to verify opinions, mistaking relationships or meanings.

Language as a Tool of Thinking

Words are an important instrument in thinking. They are a part of the social heritage, but each individual out of his experiences builds his own meanings. As the meanings are broadened, exactness in the use of words is acquired and ability to think increases. Teachers should seek to enlarge the vocabulary of students, make their speech more precise, and develop the habit of discussing with ease and exactness topics which interest and concern them. "Having to say something is a very different matter from having something to say."[2] It is this having something to say that teachers should emphasize first and then the ability of students to say it with clarity and ease.

Home economics offers an exceptional opportunity for enlarging the vocabulary and enriching the meaning of words already

[2] Dewey, *op. cit.*, p. 246.

in use. New words—carbohydrates and vitamins, rayon and Nylon—will be added to the vocabulary. Distinctions will be recognized in words already familiar: scissors and shears, percale and gingham, independence and resourcefulness. Relationships between materials will be perceived, broadening the meaning of both words, as in the realization that starches and sugars are both carbohydrates, that rayon and silk have certain properties in common and certain pronounced differences. The origin of names may be pointed to: sandwich, calico, cashmere. Some words carry a clue to their meaning in the word itself: vitamins, carbohydrates. Such words as personality, lovely, and exquisite will be used less loosely if their meanings are thought through. Selecting words to convey the exact idea in describing a costume or a picture, in criticizing a prepared dish or the arrangement of a room, becomes important. "Partnership" is enriched when seen as the joint responsibility of a man and woman in making a home, as well as a term used in business relations.

No teacher will attempt to make an English lesson of home economics, nor will she make the members of a class so self-conscious that they will hesitate to speak. She can praise them in the use of an especially well-chosen word, as well as suggest a substitution or the necessity for further thinking concerning the word to use. She can also be thoughtful in her own use of words. The class should come to realize the place of language as an instrument of thinking. Without it people could live only in the present moment. With it, as a tool, they deal with things not present, make plans for the future, get ideas and experiences from other people, and tell theirs to others. Home economics with its many-sided interests makes use of a wide range of words and, through careful selection, can contribute much to individual growth. The good teacher goes behind the answer given, in order to get to its meaning both for the individual and the group. There is no confusion between "can of peas" and canapés in her classes. The language of the textbook becomes something to be understood, the recorded experiences and opinions of other people, valuable only as it contributes to the thinking of the person who is making use of these materials.

Thinking Developed through Discussion

The class discussion may be extremely valuable in developing the techniques of thinking. In the study of methods of teaching, emphasis is frequently placed on questioning. The strength or weakness, however, is more often not in the question asked but in the use the teacher makes of the answer. Some teachers take the position of a judge so that pupils recite to them. Others accept an answer if correct, passing on to the next question without finding out the basis for the answer. *Yes* or *no*, even though correct, may be a guess or the result of thinking. Ruth usually knows what she is talking about. She answers, "Yes," to a question. Clara, having confidence in Ruth, agrees with her when asked her opinion. The teacher then asks for supporting data, not with any desire to catch her but rather to help her clarify her thinking. Clara needs this frequently; Ruth, only occasionally.

When the answer is a matter of opinion, the good teacher attempts to develop sides in discussion not for the sake of argument or for securing a common solution but to be certain that all points are considered, and that the statements made are the result of sound reasoning rather than of inadequate knowledge or personal bias. In considering this type of problem, it is important that the teacher guide the group into seeing the necessity for weighing all points and then reaching individual decisions. This may or may not represent common agreement. The important thing is not reaching a particular answer, but that each person thinks for herself. No teacher should wish a class to assume responsibility for saying what *the* suitable wardrobe is for a high-school girl, or *the* budget for a family on any particular income level, but she should want each member to know the things to think about and the implications of the different points.

A wrong answer may represent real thinking.[3] In such cases the teacher should try to help the pupil find where she was led astray rather than merely try to get the *right* answer. It may be the result of misinterpretation of information, use of irrelevant material, accepting a conclusion on insufficient data, the influence

[3] See p. 138.

of personal bias. Less ground will be covered in such teaching, but greater progress will be made in acquiring ability to meet situations independently.

Thinking is only possible when knowledge or the opportunity to acquire it is present. "Just think" is a common classroom expression, but pupils, even when willing to think, may not have sufficient experience to make a start. As an introduction to discussing behavior problems with small children, a teacher told the class of the bad little boy who climbed over the seats on the train and cried for everything the train butcher had in his basket. She also told of the little boy who insisted upon riding his scooter into the front room when there was company and of the little girl who wanted to stand on her head to entertain her sister's boy friend. The teacher then asked the girls what they would do in similar situations. The pupils, familiar with adult-dominated homes and strict standards of obedience, gave as solutions punishments which they had seen tried and which had seemingly worked. Their background of knowledge and experience was too meager for the intelligent solving of such problems. More guidance was needed before they could begin thinking.

Making a plan of work has much value in developing thinking. Class discussion as to points to be considered and possible ways of doing things is valuable. The final plan, however, should be made by the individual if it is to be individual work, or by the group for group activity. Giving detailed directions to be followed or the working out of a plan for all to use destroys initiative and has nothing to commend it. It may be desirable to lay on all the pieces of a pattern before cutting any of it, but it is not necessary that the front should be laid on before the back, or that the waist should be basted up before the skirt. It may be important that the meal be balanced, but it is not of vital concern that the potatoes be peeled before the peas are shelled, or the other way around. Even with those practices which experience has proved desirable the teaching set up can be such that the pupils themselves arrive at the same conclusions instead of receiving them as directions from the teacher. One teacher may tell the class to finish the neck of a dress first because it stretches easily and this stretching spoils the appearance of the dress. Another teacher may ask the girls

what things they have been dissatisfied with in home-made dresses. Having received from them the features they would like to avoid, they can then work together to find out ways of preventing these difficulties in their own sewing.

A summarization at the end of the period, the problem, or unit offers an excellent opportunity for developing thinking. This should focus attention on what has been accomplished, what questions have been answered, and what remains to be done. Points previously brought out can be organized so as to be seen in their proper relation. Values should be recognized and irrelevant material discarded. Gaps in knowledge and experiences should be made to stand out and then used as guides in planning further study. The pupil's use of illustrations in summarizing marks progress in thinking. Illustrations, different from those given in the textbook or by the teacher, show both the recognition of underlying principles and their application to new situations. Frequently, repetition of illustrations previously given indicates memorization only.

Home Projects and Thinking

Home experiences to be valuable should be increasingly pupil planned, directed, and carried out. Pupil thinking, then, becomes of first importance. To make wise choices in work to be done, the girl must know her own needs and those of her home. She must also see the relationship of school learning, acquired in a very different environment, to the meeting of these personal and home needs. She should talk over plans and ways and means of reaching her goals with her parents and the teacher. The knowledge she has and new things to be learned must be considered. Much that she has learned at school will help her, but the whole situation looks different in its home setting. New elements enter in constantly. Previous learning takes on new meaning. Independence and resourcefulness are developed.

The baby in a large family was listless and unable to sit up, although nine or ten months old. The family, living far in the country, had taken it for granted that the baby was sickly. Four-

teen-year-old Susan, studying nutrition and deficiency diseases, decided that they were not raising her sister right. She asked the teacher if she might take care of her as a project. She read everything that she could get, worked out a plan for changed feeding, plenty of fresh air, sunlight, and regular sleep in a bed alone. In doing this, she frankly questioned family and community practices and had to support her proposals for changes with sound reasons in order to get family approval for putting them into operation.

A girl in another class made the statement that a hall should serve a purpose. Asked what this meant, she could only say that it was in the book. She kept thinking about it, however, and then began to think about the hall at home. She decided that their hall was all doors and served no purpose. The family talked the situation over. The mother said that she had always wished the living room were larger. The father agreed that he and the boys could take the partition out. The problem of wallpaper then came up, what kind to buy, how much it would cost, and how to put it on. The girl came back to school for help. The next problem was to refinish the floor. Other improvements made by the family included shelves in the closets, a new window in the dining-room, and a screened back porch. The girl searched for tried ways of doing things, figured accurately as to amounts and costs. She couldn't afford to guess and so gained a respect for reliable information and testing procedures. Guessing or half-thought-out answers would have satisfied her in a recitation if the teacher had been willing to accept them. Pupils can easily be brought to see the value of careful thinking in real situations.

Testing and Thinking

The testing program, seen as a whole, should test what the teacher and the pupils have set up as basic goals. If growth in ability to think is essential in realizing the general objective of education, tests should be used not only to measure the degree to which the ability has been acquired but also to develop thinking itself. Many practical situations may be provided. The class may

be given a cake recipe, using sweet milk when only sour milk is available. They have used sour milk in biscuits. Some will think it out successfully. Others will be blocked. Another recipe may call for butter and sour milk when only sour cream is on hand. Some girls will substitute sour cream without a thought about changing the amount of fat or liquid in the recipe. Others will recognize the problem but not know how to solve it. Some will work it out satisfactorily. Materials may be provided from which a meal is to be planned and prepared in a limited time. A dress may be planned, using a collection of designs and materials brought together by the teacher. The cost may be figured, plan of work made out, and new things to be learned listed. The practical test takes longer than the written test, and the teacher may feel that she can use this procedure sufficiently in the regular class work to eliminate the necessity for it as a formal test. Whenever a new problem calls for use of previously acquired knowledge or skills, it is an opportunity to test the amount of real learning that has taken place and the degree to which the ability to think has been achieved.

In the formal written test several situations may be set up as answers to a question and the student asked to select one and defend her choice. These situations may be different menus for a pre-school child, house plans for a given family, or schedules of work for wash day. Statements may be made, concerning which it is necessary to take a position and support it: it is cheaper to buy children's clothes than to make them; it is foolish to can fruit and vegetables when fresh ones are always on the market. Obviously, such topics should not have been discussed in class before their use in a test. Problems may be set up and the test may ask for points to be considered in reaching a solution, without thinking through to the solution itself: What should be taken into account in deciding whether to buy or rent? What should determine the size of a house to be built? Testing should give the teacher and the pupil information as to how far the pupil has gone in her learning and the points demanding reteaching or further emphasis. In addition, it should show the teacher the new learning for which the student is ready.

Developing Thinking in a Learning Unit

The good learning unit demands thinking throughout. The unit given here represents a type series of lessons in which discussion is often rambling, a pooling of interesting experiences and readings with little direct focusing on the solving of a problem. Other units might be planned in other ways. This is not intended as a pattern, but rather as material for thinking.

Learning Unit: What Makes for Successful Family Living?

Time: 8 periods, more or less.
Group: 10th grade—second-year home economics.

Learning unit just preceding: Introductory unit focusing on making a tentative plan for the year—3 periods.

Learning unit to follow: What part can and should high-school girls take in making home life rich and satisfying—5 periods, more or less.

The previous year's work had placed emphasis on personality development. Toward the end of that year, the group had agreed that living with the family should be the major theme for the following year. In making tentative plans at the beginning of the year, the question, "What makes for successful family life?" had been raised several times, and the girls had agreed that this should be the first question to be answered. The unit following was to help them select the special learning they would need to acquire if they were to do their share in making family life rich and satisfying.

Bulletin board: Each class had its own bulletin board which was watched by the girls with a great deal of interest. Hints concerning new work were always being placed there, as well as current illustrative material. Early in the introductory unit the teacher had placed on the board the typed statement:

"Doing It Together Is What Counts"
say the Griffins, the Chases, and the Guthries
in *How America Lives*[4]
IS IT?

[4] J. C. Furnas, *How America Lives*. Henry Holt and Company, 1941.

The book itself occupied a prominent place on their reading shelf.

The next day several pictures were added. In the center was a colored print of a simple cottage with a stepping-stone walk and many old-fashioned flowers. At the side were small pictures—a family on a picnic; a father and two sons fishing; twins in the first grade, playing with their dog. The day before the unit was to begin officially, the question, "What is the most successful home that you know?" was put at the top of the board.

FIRST DAY—GENERAL DISCUSSION. The discussion began by the teacher's telling about a family that she knew, people in moderate circumstances, father ill quite frequently, three children, mother going to night school to learn to sew for the family, the garden in which they all worked, the boy's paper route, the picnics they had when the father was well, the mother's teaching the girls to make jelly, the teacher's being invited to supper. It sounded like such an interesting family that the others wanted to know more about it. What did the father do? How old were the children? Did the eldest girl take home economics?

Several girls then told about homes they knew that were successful. They frequently began by saying that their family was different from one of those reported before, that there was only one child or there were seven, that the family lived in the city or the country, that they had a very little house or a large one, that they were very well off or quite poor. Then they would usually add that it was like the other families in certain ways, the members were interested in each other, every one helped do the work, they were thoughtful of each other, the girls never wore each other's clothes without permission.

The teacher thought it might be a good idea to get these points on the board so that they could look at them as a whole. Likenesses were put in one column; differences, in another. The first list contained such points as: loved each other, respected the rights of others, all shared in the work, important decisions were made by all together. The differences included size of income, size of family, occupation, and so on. The period was nearly over by this time. The teacher said that she had a notion that successful homes

didn't just happen and that she had often wondered what questions such families had had to settle, what decisions they had had to make before things worked out to make their homes really "going concerns." Two questions the girls said they would have to answer were: "Who is going to be the boss?" and "How is the money to be spent?" The teacher suggested that they think more about it themselves, talk with other people, and continue their reading to see what points they would have by the next day.

SECOND DAY—GENERAL DISCUSSION. The blackboard had been in use since the day before but the teacher had replaced the two lists and had written the two questions of the day before. One girl said that she would like to change the first one to: "How should important matters be settled?" Other points were added, sometimes without discussion. At other times, the one presenting the point had to explain it or show how it differed from one already there. Frequently, by rewording, two suggestions were combined into one. The finished list contained the following:

> What are the values in family life for adults, high-school boys and girls, little children?
>
> How shall important family matters be settled?
>
> How shall the income be spent?
>
> What is each member's share in homemaking?
>
> How shall conflicting wishes be adjusted?
>
> What are the rights of different family members?
>
> What are the responsibilities of living with other people?
>
> What is the place of children in the home?
>
> What are the responsibilities of the family to the community and the community to the family?

The teacher asked the class if it thought these questions were worth trying to answer. The girls thought they were and made several suggestions for going about it: asking older people, observing people they knew, reading articles and stories of family life. They said they could get more done if they divided up the ques-

tions and if each didn't try to find all the answers. The teacher agreed to this and said that they might write their names after the one question on which they wished to work. Two girls said they were not especially interested in any of the topics. The teacher suggested that they try to find out what special things made for unsuccessful homes, and this they agreed to do.

The remaining time that day was used in finding out the resources of the department and in making plans for using them so as not to get in each other's way. Two girls went to the bookshelves and picked out the books to go on the workshelf. Filed articles and stories which had appeared during recent years in various household magazines were available. The card index gave a brief note about each one. The girls had helped prepare these cards and knew how to find what they wanted. The magazines of the past year were available unclipped. The teacher had made her copy of the questions while members of the class were putting a list of available materials on the board and deciding in what order the various groups would have access to them. That ended the period.

THIRD, FOURTH, AND FIFTH DAYS—GROUP AND INDIVIDUAL WORK. The first requirement was that they make a plan of work. No set form was used, but the girls had learned from sad experience that a great deal of time could be wasted and many bypaths followed needlessly if they did not decide in advance both where they wanted to go and the steps most likely to take them there. They knew that a plan could be changed and that it usually had to be. Their experience had shown them, however, that the making of a plan was the beginning of the successful solving of any problem.

At the beginning of each class period, the teacher asked if anyone wished to submit any points or ask any questions of the class as a whole. Several questions were brought up about the scope of the problem: Should "What is each one's share in homemaking?" include the work the person would do? The members of one group said that they believed that the points to be considered under each question should include illustrations showing how a person would act. They gave, as an example, unselfishness as a responsibility of living with other people; but, in order for all to have the same

idea about the use of the term, they were going to tell some of the things an unselfish person did in the home.

The two girls, working on unsuccessful homes, asked permission to substitute for class attendance one day a talk with the judge of the probate court. The teacher asked them to plan in advance the information they wanted in order to get as much as possible in the time he could give to them. They discussed these points with her. This was not to limit them in what they learned, but rather to give direction to the questions they would ask. They went to see the minister one evening. One of the girls called on their family doctor who did a great deal of charity work. He told her that not all unsuccessful homes were among the poor, a notion which she had held previously.

The teacher worked with the different groups, sometimes waiting for the girls to come to her, at other times going to them to check progress, to tell them of material she had found, or to answer questions they had raised the day before. New material appeared on the bulletin board: a prize-winning definition of a home; Edgar Guest's poem, "It Takes a Heap o' Living To Make a House a Home"; Grace Noll Crowell's "I Have Found Such Joy in Simple Things"; a current magazine article, "My Marriage Is Going To Last"; the statement, "Most homes are run by the worst disposition in it. Should they be?" Some of the material was put there by the girls; some, by the teacher. The group work seemed to be shaping up very well by the second day. The teacher asked them if they would be ready to present their answers to the class the next day. Time was taken to consider how much time each group needed, and it was decided that a day and a half would be enough for all reports.

SIXTH AND SEVENTH DAYS—ENTIRE CLASS, REPORTS AND DISCUSSION. Some of the groups put outlines on the board in advance, explaining and illustrating their points as they went along. One group decided to write the points as they were taken up so that the class could not read ahead and be inattentive to the topic under discussion. The girls early agreed that rules and recipes could not be worked out; that a successful home meant understanding people, looking for their good qualities, studying situa-

tions to find out what seemed the best thing to do, being willing to work hard to make it a success; that each family in the end had to work out its own way of meeting the situations which would arise.

The two girls who were studying unsuccessful homes wanted their report to be a talk by the doctor, and to this the others agreed. The teacher suggested the judge, but they said that he saw families after they were "on the rocks" and the doctor saw them all along the way. He had told them things he had seen happening in families over a period of years, and they believed he had something for them all. This talk was the special feature of the last half of the period on the seventh day. The teacher had a talk with the doctor the night before in order that he might understand what they were trying to do and how he could help. He ended his talk by confirming the girls' own conclusion when he told them that every family had to work out its own happiness but that much could be learned from other people. He said that he had never seen a family fail to succeed as a family when every member was willing to think and plan and work for it, and that he had even seen it successful when half the partnership was doing most of it.

EIGHTH DAY—INDIVIDUAL WORK. The teacher then asked the girls to work out alone what they considered were the most important factors in successful home life. They could have the whole period if they wanted it and could use any materials they had. The two conditions set by the teacher were that they tell why they considered each point that they gave important and that they illustrate as freely as possible, using whenever they could incidents other than those given in class discussions and reports.

SUMMARY OF THE PROCEDURE. What happened during this learning unit? The interest of the class was aroused by material placed on the bulletin board in advance and by questions raised during the introductory unit when they were making general plans for the year. A question calling for some organization of what they already knew was put on the board the day before the first class discussion. The first day ended with a challenging question from the teacher and the beginning of an answer by the class. This was continued the next day, and a list of questions which families had

to answer was decided upon. There was division of labor so that more could be accomplished. Each girl worked on a problem in which she was interested, and each contributed some information which the rest of the class wanted. The teacher helped certain girls, not especially interested in the topics first worked out, to find something they would like to do which had bearing on the problem to be solved. The class studied their resources and made a plan of work. They had opportunity daily to contribute to the class and to ask for group judgment when they wanted it.

The organization demanded independent work within a group, but the teacher was in close enough touch to keep things moving ahead. She also showed her interest by making special contributions to various groups. Materials were organized so that each group presented to the class an answer to a particular question, at the same time showing the bearing of this answer to the solving of the whole problem. Each girl took from the contribution of all the members the material she considered important and arranged it in such a way as to form for herself an answer to the major problem. The only requirement in this was that she be able to defend her answer and to give illustrations to show that her selection was based on understanding and was not mere verbalization.

Briefly stated, the steps used were an informal discussion in order to raise the problem and to find out what the class knew; a working period in which small groups worked to find an answer to that part of the problem each had accepted as its responsibility; a class summarization of the work and the application of the findings to the larger problem under consideration; an individual summarization in which each pupil attempted to organize her own answer and to support it.

Much home economics material can be taught effectively by using the same fundamental steps. The procedures will vary with the nature of the unit. The work periods in certain foods units obviously would be food preparation, and might be either small group or individual activity; in certain clothing units they would be individual clothing construction. Even in such cases greater learning will be secured if the activity grows out of a definite purpose which has become vital to the pupil. A problem, no matter how well thought out by the teacher, is not a problem until it is

seen and accepted as such by the class or individual within the class.

"Thinking is not a separate mental process: it is an affair of the *way* in which the vast multitude of objects that are observed and suggested are employed, the way they run together and are *made* to run together, the way they are handled. Consequently any subject, topic, question, is intellectual not *per se* but because of the part it is made to play in directing thought in the life of any particular person."[5] The whole teaching situation may be directed to acquiring the ability to think. The use of language, group discussion, laboratory work, home experiences, and testing may lead to developing habits of sound thinking. More not less will be learned if teaching is organized with the acquiring of this tool of learning as one of its major purposes, not as an end in itself but for its usefulness in attaining the large objective of education. The teacher, however, in her desire to develop the ability to think must not lose sight of the need for knowledge in thinking or of the importance of thinking about worth-while things.

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[5] Dewey, *op. cit.*, p. 56.

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CHAPTER X

TEACHING FOR PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

A concern that each and every person finds lasting joy and fulfilment in living is the heart of democracy. Such richness of life, however, is not to be a gift from one person to another or from society to the individual. It is to be earned, in part by the individual for himself and in part through what others do for and with him and what he does for and with others. What a person learns, helps make him what he is and provides him with a rich body of learning on which he may draw in his living. The school has been most concerned with this latter type of learning. It has given little attention to personality development, apparently unaware that such development takes place as a part of school learning throughout. Both types of learning are important, neither need be sacrificed for the other. Each, however, needs to be consciously directed. The girl who knows how to select attractive clothes and wear them well has a wealth of experience upon which to draw as she buys other clothes or selects costumes for different occasions from those clothes which she already has. She also has greater confidence in herself and feels differently in her relations with other people. The same may be said of all that she learns. Some of her learning will have a good effect, some a bad effect, upon her personality. This is true whether the learning has been consciously so directed or not.

The end of adolescence is adulthood; the goal to be desired—a person mature in all his relationships.[1] If life is to be satisfying to the adolescent now and as an adult later, education must consciously direct attention to acquiring the learning necessary for achieving a well-adjusted personality. It should also seek to develop a zest for continued learning and provide the techniques needed for the individual to direct his own living. The teacher need not be disturbed lest the acquiring of techniques of living be neg-

[1] See p. 47.

lected. Personality development does not take place in a vacuum. Only as students have worth-while experiences under wholesome conditions of learning and living can desirable personality traits and characteristics be developed. Students will acquire more not less of the kind of learning the school has stressed as they see its worth in relation to their own personality growth.

In life itself, all that happens to the individual affects his personality. For purposes of emphasis, however, this chapter will focus on certain needs which should receive special attention during adolescence and early adulthood. The two succeeding chapters, dealing with learning to work and live with other people and learning to direct one's own living, are also concerned with problems of especial importance in becoming a well-adjusted person.

Getting Acquainted in Home Economics

An educational program which fosters personality development is built on the teacher's knowing the individual student and on his knowing himself.[2] Some of this will be knowledge which the school secures. Other information will be obtained by the teacher through formal means at the beginning of a year or as different units are planned and carried out. There is, however, an informal getting acquainted with students which is a natural accompaniment of working together. These contacts are valuable in helping the teacher plan suitable educational experiences for students. They have, however, additional value in personality development. The nature of the materials with which home economics deals and the informality of much of the instruction at the high school level lends itself especially well to developing fine, wholesome relationships between teachers and students and the families of students and between students themselves. The extent to which this occurs, however, will depend largely upon how important the teacher thinks such relationships are and the responsibility she feels for developing them. Some teachers focus attention largely on home economics. Their interest in the subject overshadows concern for students as people.

As students make choices in selecting materials and patterns for

[2] See also pp. 71-72.

garment construction, the teacher may get clues as to what clothes mean to different girls. The one who appears to have little interest in them or who says she wishes that she could dress like a boy may be telling more than she realizes. The girl who does not do her share in group activities may not be as lazy as her classmates think. She may lack confidence in herself, be afraid to measure her skill against that of others. The one who says she doesn't care for parties may not have the clothes to wear or may not know how to act at such affairs.

In the informality of home economics teaching, the teacher may show an interest in the personal affairs of students without seeming to pry. She will have many opportunities to make suggestions informally, casually, and privately. She can give praise where praise is deserved without making the attention conspicuous. Boys and girls at this age like to have their efforts appreciated, but they frequently dislike being singled out for recognition. Suggestions for improvement, for trying out new ways of doing things, can also be made individually. Adolescents feel a need to know some one within the school well and to have some one know them well. If the home economics teacher has natural sympathy and understanding, accepts each student as a person, they will come to her with a wide variety of problems, many far removed from home economics. For some students, she may become that school person whom they need as counselor and friend.

Some teachers may find it worth while to chart the friendships of students within a class, find out which are leaders and why, which seem to have no friends. One such study[3] was made by asking each student to list his one, two, or three very best friends. These relationships were then charted. Some students will claim friendships with students who in turn claim no such relationships with them. Some will be on a friendly basis with their teachers and have no close friends of their own age. With the facts before her, the teacher can work to remedy undesirable situations. Careless habits of personal hygiene and grooming, unpleasant and boisterous manners, frequently set a student apart from those with whom he would like to chum. Overcoming undesirable habits may help

[3] Merle H. Elliott, "Patterns of Friendship in the Classroom." *Progressive Education,* 18:383-390. November, 1941.

a girl win the place she covets in the group or, if not that place, another which gives her equal satisfaction and security.

Getting acquainted with students may extend outside the classroom. Home visiting offers the home economics teacher an opportunity to know students in the home situation and in relationship to their families. When the approach is based on a real liking for people and a desire to know them as people, both students and the members of their families will in turn feel natural in their relationships with the teacher. The girl soon comes to realize that here is one person who knows her home and sees her family with sympathy and understanding. Even when home visiting is limited to a sampling of students, the very nature of the problems taken up in class brings the home and school close together. Much of the class instruction is closely tied in with their home experiences. Conditions at home also affect the kind and amount of clothes a girl will make, what she will buy ready-made, and how much she will pay. The attitudes acquired at home will influence her attitudes toward topics discussed at school. School learning that is functional will help in meeting situations at home, making life easier and pleasanter for the student. Parents may be invited to the school to help in planning the work or to see what the students are doing. As parents and children come to understand each other better, improvements in relationships may be expected.

Developing Poise and Self-Confidence

Adolescent boys and girls want to be like others of their group, win a place of esteem with their peers. Many things interfere with this desire or so it seems to some of them. Carelessness in personal hygiene and grooming, thoughtlessness in manners, unfamiliarity with correct social customs, and differences in the ways of dressing the hair or in the clothes worn may set a girl apart from the others. This is sometimes done by the members of the group; sometimes, by the girl who sees her differences of greater importance than do her classmates.

Some girls are not well groomed without realizing it; some, because cleanliness and neatness are difficult in their situations; still others, because they do not know the difference it makes in their

relations with others. Home economics teaching may help these girls in many ways. Basic to meeting the situation is the development of an attainable ideal of, attitude toward, and zeal for good grooming. Standards must be individual and in keeping with reality—the time, money, and conditions available for grooming. Techniques must oftentimes be learned. The girl may need to know how to manicure her nails, shampoo her hair, press a woolen dress, launder a sweater, brush and air her clothing. Conditions for doing these things may need to be improved. Many girls have carried out excellent home projects in improving storage and bathing facilities.

Learning to select becoming clothes and to wear them well has a great deal to do with developing poise and self-confidence. Learning to sew may mean a great deal to the girl who has limited financial resources. A girl who had nice enough clothes never seemed to get the right things together. The class discussions concerning clothing selection and costume and wardrobe planning had apparently made no impression on her. After Christmas she appeared with a new plaid scarf which she wore with anything and everything. Two of her dresses were of plain material and formed a lovely background for it. The teacher made a special effort to comment on her appearance whenever she wore the scarf with these dresses. One day the girl said to her, "Why is it you speak about my scarf some days and not others. Yesterday three different people told me how nice I looked and I had on one of my oldest dresses. Today I have on a new one and no one has said a word." The teacher had some large squares of plain material on her desk. Picking up several, she walked with the girl over to the mirror. It took only a moment for the girl to see the difference between the scarf against a plain and somewhat neutral background and against her new plaid dress. Her active interest in being becomingly dressed dated from that experience. Several months later she said to the teacher, "You know, I used to say that I didn't care for clothes. I knew even then that I did, but I thought being well dressed meant spending lots of money and I didn't have it. I'm glad that I found out the difference."

Being at ease, doing the right thing in the new and wider social contacts open to adolescents presents many perplexing problems.

Sometimes a boy blusters his way through a situation apparently determined to show that he is as good as the other fellow when the real difficulty is that he doesn't know what to do and wishes that he did. Sometimes the girl stays away from the party, saying that she doesn't care for such frivolous things, when the trouble is that she is always a wallflower at such affairs. Sometimes the girl turns her head away, pretends not to know an older person, because she doesn't know what to say in such a situation.

The basis of good manners is inconspicuousness in one's own conduct and thoughtfulness of other people, and this students should learn not by precept but by practicing it and seeing it practiced. There are techniques and skills, however, which help a person both to be inconspicuous himself and to show thoughtfulness of others and students want to learn these techniques and skills. Girls in one class said that making introductions and what to say when introduced to some one were two of their greatest problems—how to introduce the boy friend to their parents, a girl friend to their mothers, what to say when meeting the boy friend's mother downtown. Following a brief discussion as to some of the things a person could learn to do that would make such occasions easier, the girls set up several typical situations in which they frequently found themselves. They then broke up into small groups, planned and rehearsed skits showing how such situations could be handled. These two- or three-minute skits were tried out before the class. The girls were so anxious to do the easy, gracious thing that they focused on the activity and forgot themselves as persons. They appreciated the commendations of their classmates but were even more eager for suggestions for improvements. Boys are equally anxious for lessons on manners and conduct. Some boys' classes invite girls in to make the situation more realistic. Others prefer to do their practicing with the teacher, feeling less self-conscious with her.

Adolescents need to understand their own growth and development[4] and build up a good attitude toward good health habits—the proper kind and amount of food, sleep, recreation, and exercise. Home economics offers many opportunities for making such learning real and vital. Feeding rats is an excellent way for

[4] See pp. 56-57.

younger junior-high-school children to learn what happens when the diet is deficient in one of the necessary nutritive materials.

Acquiring skill in the maintenance aspects of living has a good deal to do with building up self-confidence. The girl who feels sure of herself in social situations, who knows that she can make good-looking clothes, plan, prepare, and serve appetizing and attractive meals thinks more of herself and feels more adequate in new and unfamiliar situations. In some instances the student needs to acquire new skills; in other, to receive recognition.

Jim was a timid, slightly crippled seventh grader in a home-life orientation course. He said little in class and rarely spoke to anyone if he could avoid it. This group of youngsters decided that they wanted to have a party for their mothers. The main purpose of the affair was to acquaint them with what they were doing and to have them see why this course was more worth while than the time previously given to science, art, home economics, and industrial arts as separate subjects. The class broke up into three groups: one, to plan a program; a second, to provide refreshments; the third, to act as hosts and hostesses. Jim fell in this third group. The different jobs were assigned to students by students. Jim was given the job of opening the door for the visitors. The principal, who told of the incident and its effect on Jim, said that he was quite certain that the students and the teacher saw Jim standing behind the door as he opened it, a timid, twisted boy, out of sight. Jim, however, saw his job otherwise. He saw himself selected by his classmates to be the first to greet their mothers. He asked many questions about what he should do, took unto himself points made in earlier discussions of hospitality. When the day arrived, Jim stood a little straighter, held his head a little higher, and a timid smile played about his mouth. For the first time in his life, he spoke to grown-ups before they spoke to him. Calling more by name than anyone dreamed he knew, he invited them into the department. More important, however, were the after effects. From then on, Jim spoke to the superintendent, principal, and teachers whenever he saw them about the building or downtown, mingled more with his classmates, talked more freely in class. Teachers and other adults who knew nothing of this particular incident commented on how he had changed.

In another school, rural children from several small and isolated communities were brought into the small-town county seat for their high-school work. The town and country groups didn't mix Because of the informality of its teaching and its personal nature in many respects, this showed up worse in home economics than anywhere else. The country girls did good enough work individually, welcomed the teacher in their homes, and completed some very nice home-improvement projects. In class discussion and group work, however, there was a wall around them. One girl, who was a leader with the country group, was especially difficult. She was almost always coldly indifferent to all the teacher's efforts to draw her out in class discussion. Occasionally, tears would come to her eyes, and when this happened the teacher knew that she had lost again whatever ground she may have gained with any of this group. Her dislike seemed to focus on a town girl who was unusually well poised and well mannered. The situation got worse instead of better as time went on.

One day the girl brought in a dress she had made at home as part of her home project work. A visitor was at the school that day. The teacher asked her advice about having some work ripped out. The sewing was beautifully done but the shoulder seams were not the best choice for the material or the style. The visitor advised against it, proposing that the teacher do no more than suggest another type of seam to try another time. The teacher then told of her difficulty with the rural group, especially this girl. An incident in class that day led the visitor to think that feelings of inferiority were at the root of the trouble. Plans were then made for securing recognition for the girl for her very fine sewing. The help of a tactful, popular, and well-dressed teacher was enlisted to ask the girl to make a dress for her. The girl made two dresses for this teacher and a third for another. Shortly after this a local dressmaker asked her to help her on Saturday and later engaged her for half time during the summer. The dressmaker was noted for her fine sewing. The girls in class soon formed the habit of asking her help for anything unusual they wished to know about sewing. The recognition given this girl had an immediate effect upon her participation in class and her relationships with others about the school.

Girls frequently have to wear clothes that have been given to

them or their own after they are out of style or faded. Their hairdress and use of cosmetics may be prescribed by their parents. Any of these things may set a girl off from the rest of her group. Sometimes the older members of the family have grown up in a different culture or type of community. Their insistence upon a certain way may be because they know no other. It may, however, represent a desire to hold on to their children, keep them one of them. There are several things the home economics teacher may do in such situations. By getting acquainted with the parents or grandparents, as the case may be, she may win their confidence so that they are willing for her to be the arbiter in the situation. If she says it is all right for Mary to wear her hair differently or cut off some of it or have her dress shortened or wear more lipstick or rouge, they will agree to it. Sometimes all that the parents want is another older person to take some of the responsibility. The mother doesn't want Sarah to look different from the other girls, but she hasn't the time or the skill to fix over the old dresses that have been given to her. She has forgotten how much being different from the crowd can mean at that age and thinks Sarah should be thankful for the nicer material than they could buy. The teacher, on the other hand, may help the girl learn how to fix the clothes, comb her hair becomingly, use cosmetics with better taste.

Sometimes differences between parents and children grow out of the parents' failure to recognize that the children are growing up. Parents are unwilling to let a girl choose her friends, plan her social life, have money to spend on her own because they still see her as a little girl. Sometimes the girl enjoys continuing to have the favors of the small child in the home even as she wants the privileges of an older person in her outside relationships. If home economics work is directed so that she will learn to take responsibility, develop techniques for meeting situations at home, show good judgment in making decisions, she can win a new place for herself in her relationships with parents much more easily.

Security Built through Mastery

As confidence in one's ability to meet situations grows, security grows. The girl who knows how to select the food she needs, to care for her health, to spend money wisely, to get along with other

people, and to play with little children feels greater security than before she had learned these things. Confusion, bewilderment, fear of life itself, grow out of inability to cope with situations. A girl may learn many techniques of living in home economics. Too often, however, her learning is not carried to the skill level. She knows a little about many things, has tried her hand at a wide range of activities but really mastered few. The wise teacher will encourage the individual girl to develop and provide the conditions for developing a high degree of skill in at least a few activities. The more of these "peaks" a girl can build up, the happier she will be.

It was a first unit in the study of foods. The girls were discussing the things they wanted and needed to learn. Sunday-night suppers and refreshments for company interested them most of all. The teacher thought ability to get supper for the family should be included in their goals. They added this after a discussion in which several girls had made a special point of their parents not realizing that they were growing up. Planning the unit then focused on the basic things they needed to learn about cooking and the special dishes they would like to become proficient in preparing to achieve their goals. The teacher suggested that, in addition to these more or less common learnings for all, each girl pick out one thing in which she would like to become "famous" for making among her friends. Several picked out coffee; one, cookies; another, apple pie; still another, doughnuts. Several chose outdoor cookery and whatever it included. Whenever the opportunity presented itself along with the more general learnings, each girl began work on her specialty. The girls who had chosen coffee were ready with recipes for making coffee in all kinds of ways when the class had that lesson. They had the whole class working with them to find out the difference in flavor between drip, percolated, and boiled coffee. The outdoor cookery group concentrated on coffee made in a tin pot and a tin pail. These two groups continued their experimenting and practicing outside of school. They were also given further opportunity to work on it at school when special help was needed. The girls found these experiences worth while and stimulating. Many of them were well on the way to becoming

expert at making two or three different things during this one unit.

The interest thus aroused in becoming an expert in some aspect of food preparation carried over into other units. No pressure was put on the girls to do this. The teacher did suggest things they might be interested in and the values which might come from doing a few things exceptionally well. The class members gave recognition in various ways to those who had learned to do something better than the others in the group. In the study of little children, some girls became especially interested in learning to tell them stories; others, in games; still others, in toys and books. In a study of the house and its furnishings, several girls became interested in flower arrangement; some, in different types of handcrafts; others, in refinishing furniture. Interest in these different specialties did not take away from their desire to learn those things that all had agreed they needed to know and be able to do in order to achieve the general goals agreed upon. In fact, if anything, it increased their desire to attain these other learnings.

Creative Values in Home Economics

Many teachers and students think of creativeness only in connection with work in art, music, writing, dramatics, crafts, and then only if the product is novel to society. That the creative urge is common to most, if not all, people is pretty generally recognized today. That fulfilment of this urge contributes to individual adjustment, lack of fulfilment to maladjustment, is also being recognized increasingly. Many, however, do not have the talent or the urge to create in any one of these various mediums or to create the truly novel in any medium.

Home economics offers a wide range of opportunities for creative expression. Acquiring the special skills just mentioned will be, in many instances, a creative activity. The girl who makes a perfect cherry pie or jelly that sparkles, who arranges flowers tastefully or a table attractively, has all the joy of the artist provided she learns to put something of herself into the process. Preparing and serving food, planning and arranging house furnishings, planning the wardrobe or different costumes, and making clothing all

offer endless opportunities for developing creative abilities. Such abilities, however, will not be acquired by talking about things. Students must see, handle, and work with real things.

The home economics department, if planned, furnished, and managed with the intention of using it as a laboratory for learning to express oneself creatively, presents many situations for acquiring such abilities. Some teachers make plans to have a number of decorative objects, extra pictures, and wall hangings. The students then have the privilege of rearranging the department whenever they wish, keeping in mind always the work to be done there. They may change the furniture around, move pictures or other decorative articles from one place to another, or store some pieces for a time. Special opportunities for individual expression are sometimes provided through setting aside a bulletin board, exhibit case, or screen for the use of students in displaying materials.

The teacher in one school discussed with the girls the kind of flowers and shrubs, both native and cultivated, grown in that locality. They planned the kind of containers they would like to have in the department for these flowers. One by one they collected the dozen or more which, they thought, in size, color, and shape would be most useful. Their collection contained an old stone jug and a stone crock, a plain white milk pitcher, a squatty mustard jar, several pickle and marmalade containers, a couple of willow baskets, and three or four bowls from the five-and-ten-cent store. The whole collection cost less than one good pottery vase. No one who ever saw yellow goldenrod and purple ironweed banked in the willow baskets in the fall, purple lilacs or pink roses in the white milk pitcher, or wild plum in the almost-black stone crock in the early spring ever felt sorry for these girls because they had no Rookwood or Sophie Newcomb pottery in their collection. What they had was within the reach of the girls at home. More important from the point of view of creative expression, however, was the fact that they had enough different kinds of containers so that they could arrange the flowers and shrubs and grasses and seed pods brought to school in really lovely ways. Almost daily some girl had the experience of fixing a bouquet,

and all girls had the chance to enjoy them as they worked about the department.

A second opportunity for creative expression comes in the work the students do. Their interests and talents will vary. Some girls will have sufficient talent to design dresses and articles of house furnishings, to plan original table decorations and place cards. For others, their creative abilities will be largely in the realm of using, in ways novel to them, those things that others have created. Both ways of expressing themselves should be encouraged. As they have the opportunity to try out things, those who appear to have little talent may find they have much more than they had realized. Some girls, having tried to draw in the grades and finding they could not, can express themselves in materials. They get real joy from setting an attractive table, arranging food on a plate, or planning meals so that colors, flavors, and textures blend well together.

Learning To Face Reality

Learning to face reality is essential if adjustment is to be satisfactory and the individual is to be happy. This means to see realistically oneself, the world in which one lives, and one's relationships to other people and to things. Adolescence is an age of high hopes as well as keen sensitivity to one's differences from other people—a combination which makes it easy to build up a world of phantasy if care is not exercised both by youth and those who are directing their growing up. To dream of living in a mansion, of singing in grand opera, or of being a famous international spy may do little harm if one realizes that they are dreams. The world built up by the radio, movies, pulp magazines, and shop windows, and the pressure of advertisements of one kind and another does much to encourage an unwholesome type of daydreaming, however. Girls buy cheap imitations of the clothes they see on the screen, clothes that will not stand the wear demanded of their clothes. They imagine that they are the heroines of the stories they read. They do without or skimp on lunches to have a permanent. They go to places they can ill afford, buying atmosphere rather than food.

The young need help in facing realistically the resources they have and can hope to have—resources of money, energy, knowledge, time—and what these resources will get for them. All too few young people today have any idea of the actual incomes of the great body of families or individuals. They do not know what food costs nor how much is needed to feed a family of two, three, or five persons. They do not know all the things the family must have in order to live at a comfort level, or what these things cost. They need to set long-time goals for their own living—for health, recreation, future vocational preparation—to weigh what they want in the long run against the more transitory interests of the moment. And teachers must find other ways to teach these things than by talking about them.

Girls are forced to face reality in their home project work. The work they do at home must fit into the family's life, be within their individual and family resources. Only rarely is a home project out of line with what is suitable or can be afforded by the family. It must be admitted, however, that in some cases this is to the credit of the family and not to the home economics instruction they have had. Much home economics teaching in college is not at the economic level of the students, and, even when it is, it may be above those they will teach. The real difficulty, however, is not because of this fact in itself, but because their curriculum was not built around their needs, whatever they may be, and because they have not learned as part of their preparation for teaching how to build a curriculum around the needs of those they will teach. The teacher and students will do well to face the cost of the meals they plan, the money they have for clothes, what buying on credit means, the kind of standards of housekeeping that are possible with all the work to be done in the home. Activities taught in isolation, as so many are in home economics, may be good in themselves but, when seen in relation to all the things the individual or family has to buy or the work they have to do, may be setting a standard wholly undesirable or unattainable.

Developing Emotional Maturity

Emotions accompany everything an individual does, and no one would wish it otherwise. It is important for both the individual

and society that people care about things. The difficulties arise, not because they care but because they do not grow up in their emotions and because they use them in unfair ways for selfish ends. Many of the suggestions made previously for developing a wholesome personality will contribute to growth in emotional maturity. Developing poise and self-confidence, learning to face reality, achieving mastery of the techniques of living, and developing the scientific attitude and the ability to think all contribute to such achievement.

A study of little children presents an unusually fine starting place for conscious attention to emotional development and an understanding of what emotional maturity means. While no set pattern for emotional maturity at a particular age is to be prescribed any more than for any other phase of development, there is such a thing as emotional maturity for the six-year-old as well as the sixteen-year-old, for young adults as well as grandparents. Growth on the whole is a fairly slow and consistent process. The person who wants to be mature as an adult must achieve suitable maturity for each particular age preceding, and students should realize this. Singling out behavior traits in pre-school children, finding out how Jim and Susan get what they want, can be extremely profitable as well as interesting. Guided in their observation, high-school girls will see the variety of ways in which even small children meet different situations. Some will play fair, take their turns as a matter of course, be considerate of others. Others will have learned that tantrums pay, to pout when things go wrong. Regardless of how they act, their actions represent learned ways of behaving, and students soon come to appreciate this.

Girls in one school found it interesting and worth while to try to predict the kind of high-school boys and girls, young adults, parents, and grandparents that small children whom they knew were growing up to be. They went so far as to pass judgment on how well they would like them at these different ages. They then undertook to find out what factors accounted for the good and bad responses to situations and how the bad ones could have been prevented or changed to good ones even now. It was only a step from this to a study of older children, boys and girls of their own age, and then themselves. By the time, the students reached themselves, they were ready for suggestions as to ways in which they

could become more likable and for help from their classmates and teacher in building up more desirable traits.

Several students in one class ganged up on one girl who was always asking some one at a sewing machine or the ironing board to let her stitch or press just one seam. With a wholly innocent manner, one after the other, these girls stopped her to let them stitch or press, each saying when she demurred, "But, I let you the other day." This girl was good-natured in spite of her thoughtlessness and selfishness and could take such treatment from her classmates. In another class, individual girls decided upon the traits they wished to overcome, and asked the other girls to help them in overcoming them. They made up a girl, whom they called Lizzie, who did all kinds of disagreeable things. When one of the girls kept the sewing machine too long or argued too much for her own point of view or monopolized the teacher's time, some one was sure to say, "But Lizzie," or, "Oh, Lizzie," and rarely did she get further than that before the offending person with a sheepish grin would quit what she was doing.

Achieving Adult Relationships

All that has been said in this chapter, if put into practice, will help adolescents in growing up and in achieving adult relationships with others. Success in achieving normal and, in the end, adult relationships is especially important in three types of relationships at this age. These relationships are also often difficult to achieve. In early adolescence, both boys and girls are especially concerned with establishing themselves with their own age group and their own sex. As they grow older, they need to work out satisfying and normal adult relationships with the opposite sex. Throughout this entire period is the need to achieve friendly, co-adult relationships with parents to replace the child-parent relationships of their childhood.

Many home economics teachers place special emphasis on achieving satisfactory social relationships: learning to understand other people and why they behave as they do; making a special study of satisfactory and unsatisfactory relationship situations, what causes them, and how they can be improved. They often ask

high-school girls to write down, without signing names, what they like most about their homes, dislike most; what they do that they get praised most for, scolded most for. These are then grouped for class discussion. Talking situations out, trying to see both sides, frequently goes a long way toward solving a problem. Students usually have many excellent suggestions to make in meeting difficult situations at home if they are guided in looking at them objectively. One girl said that her father didn't trust her. She gave as an example that he always wanted to know where she had been, what she had done, and every detail of a movie when she went to one. It especially irked her to have to tell about the movies, for they were usually romantic. It was a large, country family with little money. The girls got her to see that she was the only member of the family who went often to the movies, that her father was naturally sociable and interested in people and things. They suggested that she plan things to tell the family at night, that she look at the news, comedies, and shorts at the movies with a view to entertaining the family at supper time. The girl tried out these various suggestions and found that her classmates were right in their evaluation of the situation.

Poise and self-confidence and dress and manners are especially important in achieving a place with the other sex. Young people, however, also need opportunities for social contacts, both to practice what they are learning and to get acquainted with other boys and girls. Many of the friendships of young people in the recent past grew out of family friendships. There is less of that today. There is also less opportunity to entertain friends in the home, sometimes because of lack of space and sometimes because of differences in cultural or economic status. The home economics department that has a living area can do much to provide means for students to get together informally.

Classes in which both boys and girls are enrolled often spend a good deal of time in learning how to behave in social situations and in having activities which help them get acquainted. One group had an informal social affair late in the afternoon every two or three weeks. The department had a fireplace, and some of the best of these social affairs were almost unplanned. Some of the group might pop corn; others, make candy in the kitchen; some,

sit and talk. Some one might start the Victrola and several get up and dance. The youngsters knew these occasions were to help them in getting acquainted and in acquiring the social skills they wanted to learn. They realized that this could only be done by each doing his part and by helping each other. Some of the girls prided themselves on helping a boy learn to dance; some of the boys in getting a girl to be more friendly and talkative. No teacher hung around. When plans were first being made, the students were surprised when she said that these were to be their affairs and that she did not intend to be there. They decided on a revolving committee of three, changing one member for each affair, to take up with her any plans in which they needed her help and to talk over with her what they considered their "successes." This committee was also responsible for any aspects of the party needing group action. All students, however, felt perfectly free to ask for individual help or to tell what they had done. A girl might want a candy recipe or a boy stop by to tell how he was getting along with his dancing.

Developing a Philosophy of Living

Life to be rich and satisfying must have long-time direction. Making a philosophy of life real and vital is one of the most important values to be achieved during adolescence. A philosophy should be dynamic, broadening and deepening with the years but its direction should be well-formed by the end of adolescence. Ideals of and attitudes toward home and family life and immediate personal living are of greatest concern to the home economist and represent areas in which home economics has much to give. All that the student learns and all that happens to him in the learning —the concern shown by the teacher for his individual needs, for family and community life—have their effect upon the developing of a philosophy of life.

As students learn to evaluate situations in their larger relationships, to undertake to understand personal and family life in relationship to the goals people are seeking for themselves and their children, and to see the long-time implications of their own behavior, their ideas of values will become clearer to them. Home

economics developed out of a concern for family living. No other field has the same interest in the basic and fundamental values of home life. If it is to contribute deeply to developing a philosophy of living, emphasis must be placed on trying to see life whole. Home economics in its actual teaching has dealt largely with isolated activities. Students need to see what the standards of dress, food, and house furnishings which they are setting mean in terms of other values; the time they would spend on housekeeping, in relation to playing with the children or carrying out recreational interests with the husband. Material things are valued too high and the intangibles of life too low in much of our home economics teaching today, if one is to judge by the emphasis the teacher places on material things. This is as people outside the school value these things. The teacher may well ask herself, however, if that is the way she wishes it to be.

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CHAPTER XI

LEARNING TO LIVE AND WORK TOGETHER

The kind of world in which each person lived his own life, went his own way regardless of the other people in it, was more a figment of the imagination than a reality even a century ago. "The individual who fancies he has made his own professional career, or the inventor who believes he has the sole right to his invention, or the business man who thinks his own unaided efforts have brought him his fortune is merely ignorant of his debts."[1] Today merely sees the bringing to a head of a variety of changes which draw people closer together and increase their interdependence. Merely to survive, people must work for and with other people. If life is to be rich and fine, the necessity for cooperative effort increases. "The individual contribution, the work of any single generation, is infinitesimal: the power and the glory belong to human society at large, and are the long result of selection, conservation, sacrifice, creation, and renewal—the outcome of endless brave efforts to conserve values and ideas, and to hand them on to posterity, along with physical life itself."[2]

Dictators would have the many work for the few, the few setting the goals, determining the means, and reaping the results. A democratic society is built on the philosophy that a group working together must set its own goals, plan the instruments through which they are to be achieved, and share in the results of their labors. Democracy seeks for each person the privilege of developing and preserving his own individuality. It also places on him the responsibility of working to develop and preserve the individuality of all. To be successful, both demand cooperative action. To be born in a democratic society is not enough, however. The ways of democracy must be learned anew by each succeeding generation.[3]

One needs only to look casually at group life to realize that

[1] Lewis Mumford, *Faith for Living*, p. 209. Harcourt, Brace and Company. 1940.
[2] *Ibid.*, p. 210.
[3] See pp. 16-18; 24.

people still have much to learn in regard to both ideals and practices before democracy will be fully realized. Everywhere there are families whose members lead unhappy lives—unhappiness growing out of their own shortcomings, on the one hand, their failure to have worked out satisfactory adjustments; out of selfishness, lack of common interests, unwillingness to face reality, to compromise and sacrifice, on the other. The same may be said of all the other social institutions, the school, church, business groups, neighborhood, employers and employees, and nations.

Basic Considerations in Successful Group Living

Relationships are learned, consciously or unconsciously, out of all the experiences a person has. Such learning has been largely informal, a part of everything that happened to the individual. Although little formal attention has been given to it, some of the most important learnings of both the home and the school have been in ways of working and living together, natural accompaniments of the acts of living and working together themselves. Many parents and teachers would be surprised if they could watch unobserved the six- and seven-year-olds playing school and house. No better evidence of the autocracy in either institution is needed. The schools that have consciously given attention to these problems have emphasized precepts rather than practices. Children and young people will learn to live the ways of democracy only as they see life lived that way and have experience in such living. A part of this experience should be to help set the goals, select the means for attaining them, understand the meaning of these experiences, and evaluate the degree of success in achieving them.

Observation of group living in any type of social unit shows situations met in a variety of ways. Some people take certain privileges by virtue of the position they hold. Parents often think they should make all family decisions because they are older and have had more experience or because their parents did. Many schools are ruled by the administrator; classrooms, by teachers. Those who control may have selfish goals in mind or they may be honestly seeking what they see as the good of all. One would search far and wide but find comparatively few families or schools in which

one could see democracy in action at its best. The difficulty is not so much that school people and parents do not want it but that they have not learned how to interpret democracy into practices, especially where the immature are concerned.

Another way in which people meet situations of group living is for each person to go his own way, to live his own life as nearly as he can. Many adults try this out in marriage. Some teachers object to giving any time to work not directly connected with their own teaching—their job, as they define it. A third way is for people to take turns in settling matters—decide on what movie to attend, where to go for dinner, what kind of an assembly program to have. This procedure has its merits for certain types of problems.

The fourth way in which situations may be met, and the way most satisfactory in the long run, is for those concerned to seek jointly the best answer to a problem as it affects the welfare of all. Finding the best answer is the focus of attention; the answer, a group answer. Once an answer is accepted, all work together to carry it out. Such a procedure still makes possible the delegating of responsibility, delegated, however, as a result of group planning and agreement. Responsibility, assigned, carries with it the obligation to see it through, on the one hand, and to abide by the results, on the other.

The most important learning having to do with living democratically is to learn to respect personality; to see others as ourselves with the same rights and privileges, to treat them as we would be treated. Many would say that this is all that there is to democracy, and they would probably be right. It is well, however, for teachers and students to interpret this basic concept into more specific ideals and attitudes, techniques and habits, to see clearly some of the ways in which people act whose conduct is controlled by an underlying respect for personality. The school should seek to extend the area of mutual interest and common concern and develop social sensitivity and understanding. It should foster ideals of successful working together and the attainment of the techniques needed for such working. It should help students to understand other people and to appreciate and show appreciation for what they do. It should promote a realization

that cooperative effort is essential in solving many problems and in meeting many situations, encourage a desire to do one's share and to acquire the techniques necessary for doing so. Learnings such as these, to be effective, must grow out of experiencing, not of talking about them. In so far as the young are concerned, responsibility should be delegated only within those areas in which their previous experiences have prepared them to carry through. Each experience, successfully achieved, prepares the individual to meet a more difficult one the next time.

Possibilities within Home Economics

As teachers and students set goals and plan learning experiences, they should keep in mind the necessity for learning to work and live together. They should also endeavor to evaluate both the needs of the individual for such learning and the progress being made in achievement as work goes on. Home economics offers three kinds of experiences in working together within the classroom. Success in laboratory work, even when largely individual as in most work in clothing construction, depends upon students' sharing in the use of equipment, materials, and teacher time. Other laboratory work, such as most meal preparation, is definitely group work. Situations also arise which offer opportunities for group work, if the teacher desires to use them in this way. Planning an assembly program, entertaining the mothers, deciding on the best way to care for the laboratory, selecting new furnishings for the department, making a departmental or class budget are activities of this type.

There are also many opportunities for those within the home economics department, either as individuals or as groups, to work with others in the school, the home, and the neighborhood. This may be a program of community recreation, sponsored jointly by the agricultural and home economics departments; a family project in home improvement, planned and executed by a girl and her family; or a health clinic for pre-school children, carried out cooperatively by the county health unit, the parent-teacher association, and the home economics department. A third large field of experiences open to students in learning to live coopera-

tively is to extend their understanding and appreciation of other people, to know the ideals they cherish, to appreciate the difficulties they face, to understand something of their successes and their failures and of the underlying causes leading up to them. The best opportunities for understanding and appreciating others are in the study of human relationships, personality development, and child growth, but the resourceful teacher will find other places for making such teaching effective.

Working Together in the Laboratory

Home economics classes in most schools are large in proportion to the equipment available. Some schools have separate laboratories for food and clothing study with four, five, or six unit kitchens or sewing machines for classes of as many as thirty students. Others have built and equipped a general home economics laboratory with one or two kitchens, a living-dining room, bedroom, tables and sewing machines. In these laboratories work is planned so that many different things are going on at the same time. In both set-ups, a number of students must use the same sewing machine, work together in a unit kitchen, cook on the same stove, sometimes bake in the same oven, share in the use of the ironing board. Problems in working together also arise in connection with caring for the laboratory and caring for student uniforms and sewing boxes, in getting ready for work and in getting work out and putting it away, and in using the teacher's time.

Teachers sometimes work out rules for handling all such matters and students are expected to abide by them. This makes for an efficient and smooth-running department in the beginning. Unless the teacher is a martinet, however, she soon finds that she must constantly check students as to whether they have done their share of work or conformed in other ways to the system set up. In such cases, the students see the rules as the teacher's, failing to see the meaning behind them. It is not difficult to get students to see that situations such as these call for cooperation and thus to work with the teacher to find the best way of handling them. The answers then become their answers. If a solution does not

work, it is their responsibility to modify it or to find a new one that will work.

Students, working on the best way for them to care for the laboratory, may be given the plans of a previous class to use until they have worked out their own. Some classes may prefer to have the general putting in order done by a small group of four or five, with the rest of the students continuing their work until the period is over. Some will prefer a daily change of duties; others, a change at the end of several days. Classes should be encouraged to try out different plans before setting up one for permanent use. There are some advantages in having a small group responsible for the daily general cleaning. In this way, the students will get a better appreciation of the amount of work entailed, be forced to take more personal responsibility when they are members of the housekeeping group, be more interested in keeping the department clean and orderly as they work. Students will have suggestions to make in regard to how they may use sewing machines, ironing boards, and ovens together to mutual advantage. If a plan doesn't work, the teacher may call the students' attention to it or she may wait for some one in the class to do it. Students will usually be more frank with each other than a teacher will want to be and they will usually take without hurt feelings comments from classmates that they would not from the teacher. The teacher may need, however, to guide them in seeing motives behind behavior, in seeing that what appears as selfishness may be thoughtlessness—a bad habit to be corrected nonetheless.

Working out a plan for the best use of the teacher's time during a class period may offer an excellent opportunity for cooperative action. Some teachers go from one student to another, letting individual showing largely replace group teaching. Such teachers rarely get around the class during a period; many students form habits of wasting time while waiting for the teacher. Some students will want more than their share of help or they will want the teacher to do things for them which they can very well do for themselves. Others will pay little attention to group assignments or group instructions, expecting to get individual help when they are ready to do a particular piece of work. Some will be impatient at waiting, perhaps not asking for more help than their share

but wanting it when they want it. As a first step in solving such a problem, students should be led to define the problem, to see it in all its bearings, and to appreciate that it can only be solved as they work together. Frequently a teacher will need to have students face realistically the problem of how much time she has and how ninety minutes or less may be shared by a group to the best advantage of all. She may also need to get them to see that the things they learn about ways of working are always as important and sometimes more important than the products they obtain—the garment made, the cake baked, or the house plan drawn.

One class agreed that each student who wanted help from the teacher should write her name on the blackboard, indicating after it the kind of help she wanted—making a bound buttonhole, joining bias facing, cutting in fat. The teacher would then see which girls wanted similar help and bring them together. After trying out this plan for some time, they decided that a better plan would be to list on the board at the beginning of the hour the kinds of help the different ones would need that day. The girls wanting help then wrote their names under the appropriate items and the teacher brought them together in groups as before. This plan had several advantages over the first one tried out. It called the attention of the entire class at the beginning of the hour to the activities that would be going on that day. Girls looked ahead and got the help they wanted before the immediate need arose, thus saving both their time and that of the teacher. Some joined groups to learn things not connected with what they were doing at that time because they thought it worth while to learn those things.

Meal Preparation by a Group

Most high-school programs today center their food study around meals for the family. A variety of procedures is used. Some teachers begin by having students plan and prepare a meal. The meal may be simple, but the first cooking is in terms of a meal. Others plan a meal and then the class as a whole or the group interested in food preparation at that time may work as a unit, learning

whatever new processes are involved before undertaking the meal. Regardless of the plan used, whenever a meal is served, several girls usually work together in the preparation. In such activities, students should be helped to analyze the job and its opportunities for learning. They should be guided in seeing that the good learning situation is the one in which each learns the thing she needs most to know and in which most learning takes place. Those who know certain things may help teach those who do not, but help should be in terms of teaching, not merely getting the work done. They should see that success involves joint planning, joint delegating of responsibility, and joint sharing in work.

In almost every class, there will be girls who want or seem to want to manage every activity. They may be those who have had more experience or who want everything perfect or who have formed the habit of being bossy. At the other extreme will be those girls who shirk or seem to shirk. They may be girls who do not like home economics or are timid or have had little experience or are lazy. The teacher's experience should help her in finding out the causes of such non-cooperative behavior. The problem will not be solved, however, by the teacher's assigning different jobs to students so that all have a chance or are forced to do their share of work. The only good solution is one in which the pupils themselves work out plans which bring every one into an activity and in which all work together, sharing in the different aspects.

Opportunities for learning to work and live together in activities of this type are of several kinds. One is for students to see how the work of each fits into that of others, that the success of a group undertaking depends upon each doing her share *in relation* to the work of the entire group. A second is to want always to find the best answer, whether it be one's own or someone else's, to be objective in evaluating suggestions, to be willing to confer and compromise. A third is to be willing to follow plans made by others when the responsibility for making them has been delegated to them. A fourth is to see all that a job entails and to be willing and anxious to do one's share, whatever it may be, to appreciate that most activities have a certain portion of routine and drudgery—that peeling potatoes is as essential to the success

of a meal as decorating a cake; washing the pots and pans, as arranging the flowers. A fifth is to learn to work with others in the interest of a common cause, whether they are intimate friends or not, to be fair to their ideas, and to be willing to give credit where credit is due. A sixth is to form the habit of showing appreciation whenever work deserves it. A seventh is to accept responsibility for what one does, to be glad when things have gone well but to be willing to assume blame when blame is deserved. Such learnings will be attained only, however, when students help set the goals, see such learnings as worth achieving, and desire to achieve them. Nowhere is the desire to learn more important than to desire to change one's behavior in one's relations with others.

Planning Special Activities

A home economics department offers many opportunities for carrying out special activities: serving refreshments for the parent-teacher association; putting on an assembly program; buying a new wall hanging; entertaining the mothers. In many respects these activities are much like planning, preparing, and serving a meal. They involve joint planning, sharing in responsibility for getting the work done, and evaluating the success of the undertaking. They are different also in certain respects. They usually represent a larger job extending over a longer period of time. There are more possibilities as to what may be done, more choices need to be made within the activity, more responsibilities need to be delegated to individuals or small groups.

The students in a home economics class may wish to entertain all the boys and girls in their grade. To do this involves making many decisions, much conferring and many compromises. Some of the girls may dance and others may not. Some may like to dress up and may have the clothes for doing it, others may not. Some may live in the country and find it difficult to attend evening functions. To plan and carry out such an activity, so that a large majority of those participating in it will have a good time, offers an unusual opportunity to learn to work and live together. The first step in making plans for such an activity is to set up criteria against which to measure all proposals. The students would prob-

ably agree on these points as marks of a successful party: most, if not all, of those who were invited came; students got better acquainted with each other; every one participated in the activities planned and seemed to have a good time; the refreshments were attractive and appetizing, they were inexpensive and not too much work to prepare; every one helped and no one had to do too much; all learned better how to do things together; every one worked to have the party a success, no one just to have her way. Many kinds of skills are needed to make such activities a success. Part of a girl's contribution may be to do something she can already do very well, thus giving her recognition for a special ability or talent. Part of it, however, should be in learning to do new things. Over a period of time, each should share in the routine as well as the more conspicuous things, be willing to work behind the scenes as well as out in front.

Helping One Another

Questions are frequently raised as to how much help students should be allowed or encouraged to give each other and under what conditions. The problem does not seem to be how much help or when, but rather what kind of help and what does it do both for those who receive it and for those who give it. Certainly people should learn to give and to receive help. The girl who knows how to do something may be asked to teach some one else. She should also be made to feel free to share her knowledge and skill with others without being told to do so. There are also times when it is well for one student to help another do her work. A girl may have been ill, or absent for some other reason. She may have undertaken a job too big for her or made a mistake. She may need the lift of feeling that some one else is interested in helping her over a hard place. The girl, however, who loafs, who waits for some one to do her work should not have that kind of help. It only fixes the idea more firmly in her mind that, if she works things right, others will do her share. Those who give help also receive value from it so long as they grow in understanding other people's problems and see their help as sharing time, knowledge, and experience with others. Dangers arise when a student

begins to feel superior to the rest of the class or runs the risk of being labeled the teacher's pet or first assistant. The skilful teacher manages in such a way that an ever-increasing number have help of one kind or another to give to others in the group. Students should be shown appreciation for work well-done for others by the teacher. They should also be encouraged to give such recognition to each other. It should, however, always be honest recognition of worth, never casual or superficial flattery.

Delegating Responsibility

It is extremely important today that people share in carrying out activities and that they also appreciate the fact that many responsibilities must be delegated. No one has the time or the ability to do everything. Difficulties in regard to delegating responsibilities arise at several points. Some people having delegated a responsibility are then unwilling to abide by the decision made by the individual or group to whom it was delegated. Some select their friends for whatever work is to be done regardless of whether the person has the qualities that are needed for the task or not. Others would delegate responsibilities to a person whether the person is willing to undertake them or not. Still others accept responsibility and never carry it out.

There are many opportunities in home economics to get students to see that responsibilities must be delegated, to realize the importance of delegating with care, to be willing to follow through on the recommendations made, and to do the task for which one has accepted responsibility. A home economics department was asked by the assembly committee of the school to put on an assembly program once each semester. Four possibilities faced the teacher in meeting this situation. One was to plan what they would do herself. A second was to try to have the students, as a large group, decide everything. The third was to appoint a committee. The fourth, and the one they tried, was a combination of the three others. It worked about like this. As a large group, the students decided to invite in an outside speaker to discuss nutrition and health for the first program and to attempt to show something of the nature and scope of their work in the second

one. They discussed in their various classes, the purposes which the second program should serve and some of the things they might do; they talked about the qualities needed by those who would plan such a program; and each class selected three representatives to be its class committee. From these class committees the teacher selected three members to make up a central planning committee—one from each class. Since she knew the girls best, she also appointed the chairman. The central committee conferred with the other girls who made up the class committees, talked with the teacher, and planned a program with more features than could possibly be carried out in one program. The committee members presented these to each class, explaining as clearly as they could what was involved in doing the various things. The students discussed these possibilities in the light of the purposes set up in the beginning and the time they felt they could spend in preparing for such a program. They then voted on the features which they thought would best serve their purpose.

Increased Understanding of Other People

Some antagonisms between people grow out of different ideas of values. Such is represented by the war in which most of the world is engaged today. Many antagonisms, biases, and prejudices that people hold, however, have their roots in lack of knowledge, a failure to understand and appreciate other people. This may be lack of understanding between members of a family or generation, between different economic or occupational groups, between those with different racial or cultural backgrounds. Sometimes the practices of the other group may be undesirable—and may be condemned. Study, however, may lead to an appreciation of the difficulties these individuals face or to the many factors which help to make a situation what it is. At other times practices are wholly desirable, but they are different. People are inclined to belittle differences to the disadvantage of the other person. These may be differences in ways of eating, dressing, or meeting social situations. Society, in general, has come to overrate certain ways of living and earning a living in and of themselves. It places a high value on material things, on white-collar jobs, on living in the city.

Many of the fundamental values concerning family life, held by other cultural groups, could well be copied in spirit if not in form by those descended from older American stock. Lack of understanding sometimes has its roots in differences in experiences or in positions held. This is often true of parents and children, employers and employees.

Whatever the school can do to increase understanding between people, to broaden their horizon, and to extend their interest in others will further democratic living. Home economics offers unusual opportunities for widening the area of common concern and for extending understanding and appreciation of other people. A study of family relationships should lead to better understanding between parents and children, brothers and sisters and other family members. Many students will have family members from different cultural groups no more than one generation removed. These two groups will have a different outlook on many problems—relationships between parents and children and between young men and women, the place of the elders in the family. Their points of view will differ in regard to food, dress, living within the family, celebration of holidays, and manners. Women of foreign birth who are engaged in homemaking usually have fewer outside contacts than the men, thus increasing conflicts between mothers and their daughters who want to adopt the new ways of the people among whom they live. When such girls do not have the help of an older adult who understands, they frequently take up with ways that are to be considered superficial, even if not harmful.

Food study offers an excellent way of increasing understanding between people. Every family has its special dishes, special food customs. Different sections of the country and different cultural groups also have their special foods and special ways of celebrating holidays and festivals. Students should be encouraged to talk about these things, to appreciate the values in having "memories" that tie a family or group together, and to understand that other people have their customs which mean as much to them. They should be encouraged also to learn from the family these special dishes and ways of doing things and to learn from others their food dishes and customs. People may be brought in to teach a particular dish, students encouraged to perfect a skill to teach

the class, or a teacher may do it. Groups may be interested in planning and preparing a New England supper, a Southern breakfast, a Swedish smörgåsbord.

Many home economics classes have had great fun besides increasing their understanding and liking for other groups by planning various types of entertainment which draw on the ways of living of other peoples. In one school the art, English, and home economics departments cooperated in having a series of "at-homes" around the world. They represented nationality groups within the school and were valuable in making students proud of the groups from which they came and in broadening the interests of all students. In a second school the home economics students planned an evening's program and exhibit, focusing on home life in many lands. This was especially valuable as the school, a large rural consolidated one, drew from a number of different cultural groups that had settled in small communities in the area, but which had little contact with each other except through the children at school.

Social Life in the Department

Schools have recently become more concerned as to their responsibility for the social life of students. They see the students' need for two kinds of help. One is to learn how to behave in social situations, to acquire poise and self-confidence, and to develop social skills. The second is to have opportunities to get acquainted with other young people and to have good times together in a friendly, wholesome atmosphere. The home economics department can meet both of these needs to some extent. Most departments today give some attention to personality development[4] and to learning what good manners are in different situations. Not all carry this learning to the skill level, however, but this should be done. To know, is not enough. Young people want to be able to do these things with ease. The serving of food may be made a time of learning good table manners, ease in social situations, and ability to carry on a conversation. Recently, home economics departments have been giving more attention to the

[4] See pp. 168-170.

social life of students. In many rural communities the agricultural and home economics departments have worked together to develop a better community recreation program. Many of the home economics classes, developed for boys and girls together, are emphasizing social life for students.[5]

Cooperative Activities Extending Beyond the Department

Home economics means little unless its learning affects all the relationships of life. The welfare of the department itself is inseparably bound up with the welfare of the rest of the school, the homes of the students, and the community at large. The good home economics department makes use, one way or another, of all these relationships for educative purposes. In some schools, home economics students take responsibility for hanging pictures and arranging flowers in the various rooms and for the appearance of the stage in the assembly room. The school also offers many opportunities for joint activities. In a rural school with no place for children, who brought their lunches, to eat or to play inside during stormy weather, the agricultural, physical-education, and home economics departments cooperated to solve this problem. The home economics department planned so that students might eat in the department, both boys and girls helping in fixing place mats on the tables and in clearing up afterward. The physical-education department planned so that their one small room could be used by a large number of students in a variety of games taking up little space, instead of being used as formerly only by boys playing basketball. The agricultural department through its shopwork helped make extra folding tables, game boards, and other furniture and equipment needed. In many schools the home economics department performs certain service functions, helping in planning and making costumes for plays, operettas, and the like. They may make sample costumes for mothers to copy, working out directions to be mimeographed and taken home. Sometimes the department serves refreshments for other groups.

As the teacher gets better acquainted with the families and

[5] See pp. 181-182.

homes of students, she naturally thinks increasingly of home situations as she plans the work at school, takes the entire family into account in planning the spending of money, the making of clothes, and the getting of meals. Home projects of any type are good only as they fit into the family situation, are a natural outgrowth of home life itself. In recent years emphasis has been placed increasingly on the family project in which several members and sometimes the entire family work together to improve family life. Some teachers in their teaching of family relationships have encouraged a "family night" at home as a means of the family's having fun together. Some schools have planned a family-night program at school for all the members of the family. Through all these experiences families grow closer together and children come to see how much they may learn from their parents and older members of the family, and realize the value in family life that is fine and wholesome.

The larger community has many interests of concern to home economics. The Red Cross and other welfare agencies offer many opportunities for service. Local disasters—floods, fires, cyclones—frequently need the kind of help that home economics can give best. Home economics departments have assisted in promoting and carrying out health projects—baby clinics, dental and general health examinations of all school children, clinics for tonsil operations in rural areas. They have helped in housing projects by furnishing an apartment for demonstration purposes. Activities of this type may be planned by the teacher or they may be planned jointly by teacher and students. As much and as good work may be accomplished in the teacher-planned activity as in the activity in which pupils assist in the planning. The learning, however, will mean less to students.

Later chapters will deal with other aspects of education in relation to the home, the whole school program, and the community. Home economics is rich and vital only as it grows out of the lives of those it teaches. It means much or little to the degree that it helps students in all their relationships now and in the future. Working and living with other people is one of the most important of these relationships in a democratic society.

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CHAPTER XII

LEARNING TO DIRECT ONE'S OWN LIVING

No one who is thinking seriously could hope for the school to give the individual a carefully defined pattern for living which would last throughout life. Conditions change too fast for that. Individuals who worked from daylight to dark in their youth have been faced in recent years with long leisure hours. Their education made no provision for recreation. Men who grew up in a family business now work for others. Many others took special training for a trade which no longer exists. Families that were brought up to believe that a thrifty life would result in a secure old age have seen the financial savings of a lifetime swept away. Men and women, taught that anyone who wanted work could have it, have walked in vain in this present century for the chance to earn a bare subsistence.

Science has shown that the world can be fed and clothed and sheltered on a level far beyond the dreams of a generation ago. Social thinking and planning has moved so slowly, however, that people still starve, wear rags, and live in filthy poverty in the most civilized and prosperous centers. Many people have taken democracy for granted, entirely overlooking the fact that it represents a faith only partially translated at its best into living and that its values must be accepted and its ways learned anew by each generation, even fought for, if it is to continue. Money that is needed to make life rich and full is being used to destroy life today.

No one knew, when present-day adults were receiving their formal education, that here would be major issues with which they would have to cope. No one would attempt seriously today to predict for those now in school what will be the vital questions facing the individual, the family, or the larger social groups when they are middle-aged. The curriculum has always lagged. Education should use as its medium those things most valuable for

present living and for future living so far as its needs can be predicted. Unless the whole purpose of education is redirected, the most up-to-date materials, however, will not point the way to the development of an individual who is able to meet the demands of a changing society. The need is for an individual who is increasingly able to direct his own living and to guide his own growth so that it continues intelligently throughout life, controlled by a sound philosophy which takes into account both individual and social well-being.

The Meaning of Self-Direction in Education

The child's experiences in themselves are narrow, his choices extremely limited until some one opens up the world to him. He sees his mother working among the flowers and comes to school wanting to make a garden. He watches his father building a chicken coop or doghouse and wants to build houses and barns, boats and airplanes. The girl sees flowers beautifully arranged, food nicely prepared and attractively served, a family living happily together, and wants to learn to do these things herself. But if there is no mother working among the flowers, no father using tools, no well-appointed and harmonious home life in the person's experiences, these choices will not be made, unless some one else presents them as interesting, worth-while activities.

It is extremely doubtful if the young can know the possibilities of learning unless some one more experienced points the way to them; helps them pass judgment on the ways in which they may use their resources; and assists them in evaluating the results of their efforts. This may be done outside the school as well as in it. Guidance should extend throughout all work, teaching having as its basic purpose, not solving individual problems but thinking through to fundamental values, general principles, and greater independence in learning. This type of learning, however, is acquired best in connection with real problems and will lead the individual to increasing success in reaching his own decisions in the future. Without guidance in selecting their activities, the inexperienced are likely to be governed by immediate and casual interests or to follow thoughtlessly the lead of others. It is so much

more important at the moment to make an attractive school dress than to learn the wearing qualities of different fabrics, to make an appetizing salad than to study deficiency diseases. A more experienced person must show the girls in home economics the value of these less obviously worth-while aspects of the field, must help them to see general objectives and basic learnings as controlling purposes in selecting the things they do. The choice need not always be an either-or choice, however. Many times they can do both. Sometimes they must do both. The attractive dress may be possible only as the girl learns to select materials that wear well; the appetizing salad may be a part of the meal only as she learns to buy economically.

The person who directs his life in ways personally satisfying and socially acceptable must, first of all, have a desire to direct his life along such lines and to achieve the learning necessary for doing so. He must have thought through the values which mean most to him and have acquired the skills and techniques needed for attaining them. Such learning, as in other kinds of learning, comes through experiences carefully planned, carried out, and evaluated. To make one's own decisions and to accept responsibility for the consequences of these decisions whether good or bad is not always easy to do. Thinking is hard work. To deal with situations objectively and impersonally is difficult many times. No greater personal satisfaction can come to a person, however, than to feel equal to meet what life brings. This is the only real security an individual can hope to have. Education should help people develop the zeal and the techniques necessary for directing their own lives. The home, the larger community, and the school all have a responsibility for providing such educative experiences.

The individual who directs his living successfully must have made a decision about what is most worth striving for. This becomes his philosophy of life and provides the foundation for setting up criteria against which to measure behavior. A philosophy should be broad and flexible, the result of wide experiencing, changing as life becomes richer and takes on new meanings. Neighborliness then extends from the small community to an interest in all who contribute in one way or another to individual

and family well-being, and finally to a concern for the welfare of all the race. People interested in the starving children of India or in the status of women in Italy and Russia come to see the implications of their beliefs in their demands for a change in social conditions nearer home.

A philosophy, if consistent, applies in all one's relationships. The girl who is trying hard to be a good sport on the playground realizes that being a good sport has meaning also in the classroom, at home, and on the street. The business man who loves his neighbor as himself on Sunday is considerate of his employees on weekdays, works for shorter hours and better living conditions for the less privileged, and helps provide adequate playgrounds and good schools for all the children. The mother who prides herself on being fairminded looks for reasons behind her son's sudden desire for freedom and her small daughter's flirting with the truth. Respect for the individual, concern for group welfare, and the use of democratic procedures in the solving of problems provide the foundation for all the relationships of life.

The techniques and skills needed in directing one's own life center around the ability to see problems, the ability to solve problems, and the ability to appraise the results. If life is to be self-directed, the individual must be able to recognize problems for which he needs but has no answer. He must also see the securing of a carefully thought-out solution as important and worth while to him. The business man finds himself with increased leisure. He can keep on playing golf, reading detective stories, shooting pool—the things he has always done in his free time, only giving more time to them now. The small children of the family are becoming noisy, secretive about their comings and goings, saucy to strangers. Various choices face the parents: moving to a new neighborhood, making the children stay at home and behave themselves, or cooperating with other parents in providing a playground and adequate supervision.

John finds himself in a job he doesn't like. He can't afford to be without one. Is the fault with him or those with whom he works? Is he a square peg in a round hole? Is there some way he can learn to like the job or shall he try to prepare himself for one better suited to his interests and talents while he is working

on this one? Here are common, everyday problems for which the school cannot give solutions in advance, nor do people suddenly arrive at ability to recognize and solve them. The individual who leads a satisfying life must have secured in his early educational experiences the ability to perceive problems and to direct his own learning in securing answers which meet his needs.

To solve a problem successfully, the individual must be able to make a plan of work and to carry it out. He must know the help he needs, where to get it, how to judge the reliability of sources of help, and to know when the problem has been solved. The family needs a new refrigerator. Many changes have been made since the old one was purchased. The homemaker wants to know which of these changes add to the efficiency of refrigeration, which make it more convenient, and which are merely selling points. She needs to know how to evaluate information on these various points. Although Mary has no special talents, she must earn her living. Her parents want to help her choose a line of work in which she will be happy and successful. They must be able to decide on the kind of help she needs, where it may be found, and how far they should go in advising her. The necessity for making workable plans for solving such problems and for carrying them out are everyday occurrences in life outside the school.

Having solved the problem, the individual needs to be able to evaluate the results, reach a decision as to whether this was the best answer under the circumstances. A look backward is worth while if it helps the individual to meet problems more successfully in the future. Has the move from the city to a small town settled the problem of the children's having something worth while to do? Has allowing Mary to change to home economics helped her to find special interests and talents of which she had been unaware? Did learning leather tooling, soap carving, and steel engraving satisfy the need for new recreational interests? How far was the solution consistent with the philosophy expressed?

The primary purpose of education in a democratic society is to provide conditions for and to promote the continuous growth of the individual in all areas of living, with a view to achieving and maintaining the democratic way of life.[1] Learning to direct

[1] See pp. 14; 16-18.

one's own living simply means that the individual can and does direct his own life in democratic ways when he is no longer under the direct guidance of others.

Developing a Zeal for Self-Direction

It is important that each person direct his own life, and that this direction be in ways good both for him and for society. The young must learn self-direction. This they can do only through experience. They should make their own decisions whenever they have had the necessary experiences to be able to foresee the results of different courses of action and whenever they are willing to accept the consequences of their choosing, whatever the consequences may be. At times they even need to be forced to make decisions when they would hesitate, being brought to see that it is only by making choices and learning from their experiences that they will be able to direct their own living wisely in later years. One of the most serious difficulties during adolescence grows out of the conflict between the adolescent's desire to continue in family dependence and his desire to lead his own life. He is torn constantly during the early years of this period between wanting to live in the protection afforded to him as a child by his parents and wanting the independence of an adult.

The young need to see that while self-direction entails responsibility, it is also a sign of growing up. They will, however, grow in a desire to direct their own lives only as they have successful experiences in doing so. They should have their attention called to problems that need solving or should be given freedom to solve those problems which they recognize as rapidly as their experience prepares them for it. If the answer they select works, it will arouse pride in their achievement and contribute to growth in the desire to work out their own solution again. These experiences may be of many kinds—planning an entertainment for their mothers; changing a style selected for a dress so as to give it personality, make it better suited to the individual; deciding the type of relief work the individual can do best. Out-of-school experiences, using school learning and demanding the acquiring of

new learning, offer unusual opportunities to develop the desire to direct one's own living.

Success in any experience should be earned, should represent honest achievement. There is no personal satisfaction greater than that which comes from a job well done, into which the individual has put the best of his thinking along with the best of his labor. Students may learn by failure. Failure, however, should be the result of trying not hard enough, of carelessness, or of undertaking something of one's own volition for which the individual did not have the necessary background. It should not be because he was put into a situation too difficult for him or for which he did not have the help he needed. Students will always learn more from success, honestly earned, however, than from failure. Neither parents nor teachers should set the stage for either success or failure, nor should they manipulate things so that students make the choices they desire in and of themselves. Their responsibility, rather, is to see that their children or the students, as the case may be, are ready to attack the problem before them, have the background and the help they need.

Working Out a Philosophy of Life

Ideals govern conduct. They are of many kinds and they are learned. What the individual works hardest for will depend upon *what he has learned to value most.* The school has an important responsibility to help the individual develop a philosophy of life, to develop a set of values to use as guiding purposes in planning future conduct. This philosophy will grow out of meeting many situations and evaluating the results of many experiences. The individual must recognize the importance of deciding what is of most worth and of seeing its meaning in practice. He must be able to see when changing conditions call for new answers. The whole teaching program should be directed toward the conscious development of an integrated point of view, the forming of ideals, the building of attitudes, the setting of standards, the working out of values, and the ability to remake the values as changing conditions demand it.

The school has had lessons on honesty and thrift. kindness to

dumb animals, and the value of living by the Golden Rule. This is not the way to achieve an integrated outlook on life. It may be desirable at times to focus attention on a particular behavior pattern—thoughtfulness of others—to see what it means, to interpret its use in many situations, to create an interest in attaining the characteristic, but it will not be learned except in relationship to the whole of life. An integrated philosophy is to be achieved only as it becomes a part of the whole teaching situation.

Behavior is the overt expression of an individual's outlook on life. Society has come to describe the qualities which control conduct as personality or character traits. No doubt people would agree in theory that honesty, thoughtfulness of others, and intellectual curiosity are desirable traits. It would be easy, however, to find inconsistencies in practice among people who claim to possess them.

Having discussed the traits which they liked in people and the daily behavior through which these traits were expressed, each member of a home economics class set up for herself the characteristics she wished to acquire. Each found that she did some things fairly well; other things, not well at all. The girls talked about how a high-school girl would act in everyday situations. The girl who is thoughtful of other people comes to meals on time, carries her share of responsibility for a job to be done, shows appreciation for things done for her both by her manner and by doing things in return. The girl who is fairminded tries to see both sides of a point at issue, accepts pleasantly group decisions whether she voted on the winning side or not, bases conclusions on merit rather than personal preference. Personality traits are part of the general behavior patterns of an individual and may be learned in the same manner as other behavior patterns: arousing the desire to learn a trait, making a working plan, using it intelligently in many situations, measuring success in attainment, and integrating it into the whole of living.[2]

To make fundamental changes in personality traits, changes must often extend to the basic beliefs concerning what the individual thinks is most worth while. Does Mr. Smith treat his

[2] See pp. 114-115.

neighbor fairly because it is good business policy or because he believes it is the right thing to do? Is Mary nice to all the girls in class because she thinks a lady acts in that manner or because she realizes that her classmates are people like herself? Does Mrs. Gray allow her children self-expression because it is too much trouble to curb them or because she knows that individual growth comes that way?

These beliefs are the product largely of the informal and frequently unconscious teaching of many people, of the individual's experiences in a wide range of situations. Tendencies to act, good and bad, are built up out of the everyday life of an individual. They often present many opposing points of view. Success in evaluating and integrating them seems to lie in the direction of bringing them out into the open, searching behind behavior to see what is believed and why, deciding whether these points of view are to be changed or kept. It is not desirable that a behavior pattern be set up by another individual to be followed; but it is important that the individual become aware of what he does believe and its meaning in living, and that he choose his path, fully aware of where it is leading him.

Home economics, both in the materials with which it deals and in its methods of teaching, may do much in helping to develop a satisfying philosophy of life. Its informality of organization, breadth of content, knowledge of the student's life outside of school, and concern for teaching ideals of personal family living give home economics an unusual opportunity to dig deep into the fundamental influences of life, to direct students in becoming better acquainted with themselves and in realizing the direction in which their present beliefs and behavior are carrying them. Both teacher and students should realize that the influences which control conduct in the little everyday situations, in the end, control behavior in the larger activities of living.

The Ability To Recognize Problems

Some people live, wholly unaware of a problem's needing solving, a situation approaching a crisis. Mother likes highbrow

music; John prefers jazz; father bought the radio and thinks he should listen to war news when he wants to. No one appreciates that an adjustment of these matters should be worked out. Some people are conscious that something is wrong but cannot locate the difficulty. Mother realizes that the situation is becoming increasingly tense between Mary and herself. She fails, however, to see that the seat of the trouble lies in her always having bossed Mary and made her decisions for her. She must reeducate herself before she attacks the relationship problem, which is, after all, merely a symptom of the real trouble. Both teachers and parents have been inclined to select the problems to be solved by the children in their growing up, and all too often to decide on what was the right answer. The child must grow in ability to recognize problems of concern to him during formal schooling if he is to recognize them when he is not only free but also expected to direct his own living. Pupils need to be guided in selecting problems of interest and value to them as a group and to them as individuals, guided in recognizing their need for help and in asking for it. The ability to see problems grows out of experience in analyzing situations to locate the real difficulty, of looking ahead to prevent trouble rather than meeting it only after it has arisen, and of defending choices being made in regard to work to be done. Problem-solving begins with the recognition of problems.

Many experiences may be used to reach an objective. An evaluation of these different possibilities will be helpful in assisting girls to see which one will be most worth while to them. Frequently a teacher has to be extremely tactful in bridging the gap between school learning and the real problems students are facing in their living. In a backward community, sensitive even to implied criticism, a teacher used a hypothetical case, true to life, in introducing the study of deficiency diseases. Through their study the students were able to solve the problem successfully. The teacher presented other problems and they were solved. Each solution was followed by a discussion of general points concerning nutrition. The girls showed increased interest as the discussions went on, some asking questions about specific situations with which they were familiar. The teacher finally asked them if each

girl would like to take a case she knew for study. Soon they were all studying members of their own families, nor did they stop with one. They analyzed each person's nutritive needs and nutritive habits, applied the knowledge gained in class and from other sources to find the nutritive problems, if any. Was five-year-old Jimmy overweight? Did Mary have food habits that might cause trouble later? What sickness in the family had its roots in undesirable individual or family food practices? Experience in recognizing and defining real-life problems was being developed through such teaching.

In presenting a lesson, the teacher frequently anticipates all the needs for help to insure against any pupil difficulties. This may make for smooth-running classes and good products, but it never develops initiative or resourcefulness in unsupervised situations. Desiring to develop ability to recognize problems, one teacher provided sour cream when sour milk was needed, gave the class a biscuit recipe for short-cake, had each girl bring to class the dress she liked best and the one she disliked most, had a class study home-made dresses to find out what made them look "home-made." Another teacher helped students set a standard for the finished products and then placed the responsibility upon them to ask for the help they needed. When work was finished, she had the students study their products to locate both strengths and weaknesses: measure their machine stitching against the standards they had set and then analyze the situation to find out whether the stitching, not up to standard, was due to careless basting, uneven tension, jerky treadling, lack of a carefully defined guide line, or the need for more experience. Girls, discussing family-relationship situations in their own homes, were encouraged to search for the roots of behavior which caused trouble in the family: jealousy of a sister, desire to attract attention, liking to show superiority by bossing younger members of the family. In each situation the teacher was seeking to develop ability to recognize a problem. Such ability demands sound thinking at every turn, thinking which goes beyond an immediate situation to a recognition and understanding of basic principles, generalizations, and relationships.

Ability To Work Out A Solution

Finding the best answer to a situation calls for ability to think.[a] Success and skill in thinking, however, depend upon doing a number of things, and difficulty at any one place may interfere with ability to solve a problem. Recognizing the problem and wanting to solve it, the individual makes a guess as to the direction in which the solution lies; searches for evidence to prove or disprove his tentative answer; acquires new habits and skills; projects a new answer if the first does not work, and attempts to prove or disprove it; and finally accepts a solution.

Success in problem solving demands a wide range of working knowledge, skills and habits of many kinds. It calls for the making of a workable plan, seeing what help is needed, recognizing leads pointing to past experiences and needed new experiences, knowing sources of help, how to judge for reliability, and how to test for value in solving the problem, recognizing when sufficient data has been secured to accept an answer, ability to weigh values. Special emphasis must be placed on these procedures during the directed-education period if the individual is to acquire the necessary experiences and skills and is to be able to think in the unsupervised situation.

Pupil independence should be encouraged as rapidly as the pupils can use it intelligently. The habit of planning can be developed in all aspects of home economics—class planning at first with considerable guidance from the teacher, followed by individual planning of work both at school and at home. In planning, the student uses old learning and finds out what new learning is needed. In making a slip at home, the girl should realize that she needs to be able to cut on the bias and to make a bound upper finish as new learning. The habit of looking for relationships increases the usability of learning in undirected situations. Students making smocks were asked to bring from home those dresses having the best and poorest fitting sleeves. These were tried on in class to find out what made the difference between a good and poor fitting sleeve. They discussed sources of help so that they might have well-fitting garments. One girl offered to see

[a] See Chapter X.

a local dressmaker; another suggested looking in the books and magazines in the library; a third thought that their mothers might help; and still another thought that the teacher would have some good ideas.

One day a class in health began discussing home remedies. Following the lead of this new interest, the teacher suggested collecting home remedies and studying them to find out the basis, if any, of their value. Hearsay was weighed constantly against scientific data, increasing respect for proved facts. This same class collected throughout the year conflicting statements concerning points which they were studying, misleading statements or half truths of advertisers, sales people, and uninformed lay persons. The statements were compared constantly with the results of research. An interesting and illuminating collection was one result. A new point of view was another. These girls began to ask sales people about products and to insist that they be given information about fabrics, toilet goods, and canned products when they were making purchases. As various topics came up in class discussion, the teacher asked the students what they needed to know before buying cooking utensils, before trying out new stains and varnishes, and before using advertised methods of cleaning silver, wall finishes, floor coverings.

Ability To Evaluate Results

Having found an answer to the problem, the individual in real life must decide if it is a practical one, if the solution fits in with the other activities of living. The family income remains the same but prices have gone up, taxes are higher, and the family wants to buy defense bonds. What changes shall be made in family living? Mother decides to make the children's dresses. They have always worn hand-made garments, and she learns to smock and hemstitch and embroider. Keeping the children dressed as well as usual seems the problem. Its solution, however, necessitates giving up working in the flowers, reading with father, playing with the family after supper. The answer has to be evaluated.

In order that students may get the greatest amount of permanent learning from their activities, they should look back over

a finished job and evaluate both the procedures used and the results obtained. This is not for the purpose of wishing that they had done differently this time, but to find from this experience both what has been good and what not so good in order that they may repeat the good again and seek a better way for what has been unsatisfactory.

The sweater sleeve wore thin at the elbow almost at once. Was the garment too small, too lightweight for the service expected, too cheap in quality? The dress didn't wrinkle in packing, a desirable feature, but it shrank in cleaning. On what grounds was it supposed to keep its shape and size: a trade name and guarantee, a clerk's statement, its appearance, or a test? Was the cleaning done by a reliable concern at a price high enough to have expected good service?

One teacher had a "judgment day" three months after the clothing unit was over. The girls brought all the garments they had made, not to have their grades changed or to be criticized for poor work but to round out the learning of that unit, making it as fruitful as possible in meeting future problems.

The football banquet was lovely, but the girls who prepared it were too tired to enjoy it. The class was asked the next day if it was worth it, and what might have been done differently to save work? The girls planned another banquet while this experience was fresh in their minds. They might never serve it, but they learned a great deal by rethinking through the situation. Looking back critically and intelligently over completed work helps in learning and is most valuable as preparation for later self-directed living.

Evaluating Success in Securing Self-Direction

The final test of success, as in so much of teaching, is in the behavior of the girl in the unsupervised situation. Does she see the need for new knowledge about fabrics and clothing construction as new materials come on the market or as styles change? Does she know how to judge information for reliability, or does she believe everything she is told? How well is she spending her money, meeting new social situations? How much initiative does

she show when a new problem arises? It is not so difficult to find such opportunities for measuring results as may appear at first. Students should be encouraged to appraise their own growth in ability to meet situations outside school.

The classroom, however, also offers many situations which are accurate indicators of the direction of learning. The girl who questions statements of classmates and teachers, the reading she does, family and community practices; who brings problems to class for solution; who suggests sources of help in overcoming difficulties; and who calls attention to acts of poor judgment on her part has made much progress in acquiring the ability to direct her own learning after formal schooling is over.

The aim is a behavior pattern which shows itself in a desire to keep on learning. This should be accompanied by the ability to recognize problems and use the learning one has and to seek learning as it is needed to solve these problems. No fixed pattern of living can be learned now or later. Life changes too rapidly for fixed patterns to have value. The goal is rather a person able to direct his own conduct in ways personally and socially desirable.

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CHAPTER XIII

EVALUATING PROGRESS IN LEARNING

Measurement has always been a part of teaching. The educational philosophy of today, however, demands three significant changes in practices from those of the very recent past and even from those of many schools today. Measurement in the modern educational program is seen as one step in the learning process, a natural accompaniment of learning activities. It is concerned with all the objectives of education and, as these are enriched, the measurement program naturally broadens. It is a joint concern of teacher and pupils. Until recently, examinations have been given largely at the end of the learning period—the unit, semester, or year. They have placed emphasis on measuring the extent to which knowledge has been acquired. The memorizing of facts was seen at one time as the major purpose of the school. Emphasis on this type of testing, however, has continued long after the objectives have been broadened. Planning the ways of measuring learning has been considered largely the business of the teacher—a testing for grading purposes.

More important, however, than these changes in measurement practices is the shift from a concern for measurement alone to a broader evaluation program. Evaluation as the term is used today means more than testing. It involves selecting and/or preparing and using instruments of measurement, studying the evidence collected to find out what has or has not been learned, and determining both the procedures that have been effective in promoting learning and the nature and causes of difficulties.

Evaluation in Relation to Teaching and Learning

Planning for measurement, if rightly done, is an integral part of curriculum making;[1] evaluation itself, intrinsically a part of the

[1] See pp. 69; 88.

learning experience. Worth-while objectives represent achievements which students under the guidance of the more experienced and mature have come to see as important and worth attaining. A good evaluation program stems from the interpretation of objectives into behavior outcomes and is followed by making plans for improving the learning situation so that future learning is more easily achieved.

A sound evaluation program is as broad as the objectives set up. It is teacher and pupil planned. It uses a wide variety of instruments, whatever kinds are most suitable for measuring the particular behavior being sought, and which the available resources and other activities to be carried out make feasible. It provides for pretesting, thus showing students and teacher the learning they already have, the scope of individual differences, and where learning should begin. A good evaluation program provides instruments of a self-evaluation type so that students may find out for themselves the progress they are making as learning goes on. It measures ways of working as well as the end products—growth in attaining the scientific attitude and ability to think as well as knowledge about nutrition or skill in making a dress. It gives evidence of the emphasis being placed on the different objectives in the teaching—whether nicely kept hands have been made to appear more important than doing one's share of work at home. It provides diagnostic measures so that teachers and pupils may know the nature and cause of difficulties, thus pointing to what needs to be done next. It also provides ways of taking stock of progress at the end of a unit, semester, or year. A well-balanced evaluation program allows time for study of the results of measurement by both pupils and teacher and for replanning, when necessary, for more effective learning experiences in the future.

Pretesting has been a much neglected aspect of evaluation. An increasing number of teachers, however, are giving pretests of one type or another; some to find out where learning should, in general, begin for a group; others, in an attempt to base a final grade on student growth. Good pretests make it possible both to avoid repetition and to eliminate gaps in student experiences. They show the breadth and nature of individual differences and provide a foundation for planning a program to meet individual

needs. Pretests, broadly planned, motivate students by showing them the breadth of learning essential for achieving the objectives and the ways in which progress in learning may be measured.

Pretests, however, are sometimes narrow in scope, often limited to a sampling of the knowledge the students have. The teacher alone may know the results. Students do not see the relationships of the pretests to later experiences nor do they know what they did or did not know. The pretest, set up as a basis for measuring growth, has failed largely for two reasons. The first is that the tests have been narrow in scope, dealing only with a few aspects of what has been considered important in the educational situation, and crowded into a very short period of time. The second is that the whole concept of examinations in the minds of most students centers around their relation to grades. Students see their interests as opposed to the interests of teachers. From this point of view it is smart for students to appear to know less in a pretest than they do in order to appear to have learned more and thus get a better grade. The comment of a freshman college student to a friend after a practical test in food preparation at the beginning of her study is an example of this attitude. She said, "I was to make muffins, scrambled eggs, and cocoa. I didn't want to do too well, so I wasn't very careful when I made the muffins. Then by mistake, I put too much milk in the eggs. I got so upset about that, that I let the cocoa boil. I've had two years of home economics. What will they think of me and our high-school department?"

The good curriculum provides more learning than students can hope to attain. Students should then be guided in seeing the value of knowing where they stand in relationship to goals which they have helped set. An honest appraisal of their learning, so that they are aware of what they do not know or do not know well enough to go ahead, becomes as important to them as knowing what they know. They should see the school experience as a unique opportunity for learning, rather than being satisfied with just getting by or being willing to conceal what they already know.

An evaluation program should take into account all the objectives of education—the general behavior patterns, abilities, techniques, and skills which have been set up as important. The objectives will need to be interpreted into specific behavior out-

comes before techniques of measurement can be decided upon. It should be recognized that not all students will show their learning in the same way. The girl who has grown in thoughtfulness of others may prepare breakfast in one home, read to her grandmother in a second, tune in on her father's favorite radio program in a third. Some objectives will be easier to measure than others. All should be measured in some way. Measurement of all objectives, even though some are measured by crude instruments, is more important than measurement by the most refined techniques if important ones are omitted.

An evaluation program should be teacher-pupil planned. Pupils should see planning the ways of measuring learning as of vital concern to them, the only way they have of knowing how near they are to the goals they have set up. They should see instruments that measure learning as serving the same purpose as the yardstick in buying cloth for a dress, the pound in purchasing a roast for dinner, the speedometer in telling how fast they are traveling, or the compass in keeping them going in the right direction. Teacher-planned tests set, in large measure, pupil objectives. The teacher who tests largely for factual material will find students placing emphasis on memorizing facts regardless of anything she may say as to the importance of other learning. The teacher who tries to measure how well students get along with their families, how well they use outside school the learning they are getting in school, and how much they have grown in thoughtfulness of others will find them trying to learn those things. No teacher can escape the influence of the kinds of tests she gives upon pupil learning.

Each teaching situation should be seen as a measurement situation. Some may serve as a pretest, showing the pupils' status in regard to learning not yet taken up. The teacher in the first laboratory work can get a fairly good idea of the students' standards of order and cleanliness. Each day's work also offers an opportunity to compare the work of that day with previous work—to see what improvement has been made in planning work to save time and energy, in more careful measurement of materials in cooking, in growth in initiative and independence.

Evaluation should be concerned with what students have

learned, but it should also be concerned with finding out what they have not learned and why. It is not enough to know that a buttonhole or a cake is not good. Both involve many separate processes. The buttonhole may be poor because it was cut on the bias or because the girl needs more practice. The cake may be poor because of careless measuring or of too hot an oven. Failure to do the right thing, may, on the other hand, be due to poor teaching techniques or to poor study habits or to a limited background of experience. A good evaluation program provides the means for locating such difficulties.

Testing has had as its primary purpose the supplying of data on which to base grades. It has been a part of the competitive marking system of schools. One of the advantages of the new-type objective tests has been that uniform grading is easy. Another use made of testing has been to motivate study. Pupils, expecting to be tested, have presumably studied harder. This has been proved to be untrue, at least under some conditions. Frequently, teachers have tried the daily test question, at the beginning of the period giving the student a few minutes in which to answer a question on the day's assignment, thus insuring that the pupils study their lesson. Studying for the sole purpose of answering a formal question has little to commend it. Setting up situations demanding certain learning for success in achievement has great value. Testing for grading purposes alone has no place in a forward-looking school system.

Characteristics of Good Evaluation Instruments

Learning is of many kinds and, if it is to be measured, the instruments used for measuring it must be of many kinds. A good evaluation instrument has certain characteristics. The specific instrument should be both reliable and valid. Reliability refers to the accuracy with which a test measures those aspects which it does measure; validity, to its suitability for measuring what it claims to measure. A measuring device may be entirely suitable for measuring a student's ability to plan her work, but may be so limited in scope that it gives insufficient evidence as to how well she can do it. To that extent the test lacks reliability. It tells the

right things but not enough. Another test may deal with the composition of different foodstuffs—and measure that very well. It would, however, lack validity as an instrument to measure how well a student could plan balanced meals. Many tests given today lack reliability because they do not collect sufficient data; they lack validity because they are used for purposes for which they are not suitable.

A test that is planned to measure the different learnings achieved during a learning unit or any particular period of study should have sufficient scope to give an adequate picture of all the learning achieved. It should also be planned so that the more important learnings receive the same relative emphasis in testing that they did in the teaching. The questions or statements should be set up and the instructions should be given so that they are easily understood by the students. The test then tests their learning and not their ability to understand what is wanted. Any means of evaluation, in so far as it is possible, should be intimately a part of the larger learning situation. Even the written test given at the end of an activity or unit should be so planned that students will think it natural to take stock in that manner at that time. The good test is a learning experience both in its taking and in the use made of the results.

Ways of Measuring Learning

Learning may be measured in a variety of ways. Whatever ways are used should be appropriate to the learning to be measured and the resources available. The teacher who is interested in finding out how well students know the different food principles may give a written test; the one who wants to know if they can cook vegetables properly will have them cook vegetables. Ways of measuring learning may be classified roughly into four types: oral means, written measures, observation of student behavior, and finished products. Learning may be measured through using tests especially designed for that purpose or as a part of other activities. Oral appraisal may take place while talking with a student at work or in a special conference on some aspect of the work. It may take place as a student participates in class discussion.

The student may show in this way knowledge gained, changes in attitudes, growth in ability to solve problems. A special oral test may also be set up.

Written evidence as to the nature and extent of learning may be secured through formal tests or examinations, and this is perhaps the most common type of examination given in school. Home economics also offers many opportunities to collect written evidence—the plan of work made before a garment is begun, the menus planned for a meal to be prepared in class. Many opportunities to observe student behavior present themselves. The commonest is of students as they work. How well does Mary plan before she begins a work job? Does Jane still crowd ahead at the supply table or to use the ironing board? Does Lucy foresee her need for help or materials before she actually needs them. Observation may also be in the unsupervised situation—around the school, in the home economics club, in the home, or down town. Such data may be collected by a teacher, the pupils, or by other people—parents, friends, or other teachers. Evidence on learning may be secured through seeing the finished product—the meal cooked, the garment made, the house plan selected, the chair refinished at home, the yard-improvement project carried out.

Measuring instruments may be planned to be used by the teacher alone, by teacher and pupils together, or by pupils alone. Some may involve subjective judgments almost entirely; others may be largely objective. Not all tests can be of the paper-and-pencil type. Nor can all be of the so-called objective type although some test experts seem to imply that this would be desirable. Subjectivity enters into the selection of the type of examination to give and the selection of items in the so-called objective tests, and subjectivity enters into the values given to the different items. Objectivity and subjectivity are relative, not absolute.

"In measurement there is a need for substituting an impartial, careful consideration of evidence for a biased decision. However, a relatively subjective judgment about important things is often of more value than a highly objective statement about unimportant things. Again we need not be discouraged by our limitations but we do need to guard against letting our wishes blind us to the facts. We can train ourselves to become more objective. Being able to

see ourselves, our pet ideas, and our favorite pupils in a less biased manner is a trait which can be acquired."[2]

Standard tests have been set up in most fields. They are of little value in home economics. The teacher may be interested in securing copies for studying the form and kind of questions used. The practice of adapting home economics instruction to the interests and needs of individual students interferes with the wide-spread use of any tests. A standard test is general, and the breadth of home economics also makes such a test less useful in this field than in many others. Standardization sometimes has little meaning other than that norms have been established. It guarantees neither reliability nor validity. Even the best constructed test can carry no certainty that it covers material which should be taken by a particular group at a certain time. The work of experts in the field is more valuable in perfecting the techniques of measurement than in developing standard tests. *"The more important testing is going to be done as a result of individual teachers being concerned about the effectiveness of their teaching and the improvement of their ability to measure outcomes."*[3]

Evaluating Evidence

After evidence in regard to learning is collected, the next step is to find out what it means. Too often teacher and pupils stop when they find out what has or has not been learned. When learning has not taken place, they should seek to discover the specific nature of the difficulty and its cause. Which methods of teaching were effective and which were not? Was the learning too difficult? Did the students not see it as important?

A situation is not always what it appears to be. A teacher, observing students select their lunches in the lunchroom, was much disturbed because a home economics girl chose a sandwich and a candy bar; because a boy chose a baked potato, macaroni and cheese, and a heavy sandwich. Her first reaction was that these students did not know the characteristics of a well-balanced lunch.

[2] Hester Chadderdon, "Evaluation of Evidence in Measurement." *Practical Home Economics*, 13:374. December, 1935.

[3] Chadderdon, "Measurement in Home Economics Education." *Practical Home Economics*, 13:308. October, 1935.

She recalled, however, that both had done unusually well in tests bearing on nutrition facts. It must then be that they either did not know how or did not care to apply their learning. Further investigation showed that she was wrong in this inference, also. The girl had little breakfast and only ten cents to spend for lunch. She needed the immediate energy the candy gave her—it was food to her. The boy felt a need for quantity and bought it. It was not more knowledge that these students needed, but help in improving their financial status.

This is not true of all students who select poor lunches. Some value other things more; others do not know or care about what they should eat. It cannot be assumed that all students have learned the same things because they give the same answer or act in the same way, nor can it be assumed that their difficulties are the same because they give the same wrong answer. Nor is the same answer always right or wrong for all. These facts may be discouraging to the teacher who is seeking rules to go by, but ignoring them will not change the facts nor will such problems solve themselves. Tests have tended to emphasize the importance of all students doing the same things in the same way, not what was a good choice for Jane or Susan or Bill as people living under certain conditions and having certain problems. "Too often in home economics we have directed our teaching toward standardizing both pupils and homes by teaching *the* right answer to a problem instead of helping pupils to see what is involved in different situations and how an answer changes with changing conditions. What is the best answer in one home may not be best in another. Undoubtedly this complicates the measurement problem, but to disregard it is not to solve it."[4] It also complicates the problem of interpreting evidence from all types of measurement situations.

Frequently, all the teacher can hope to do is to collect evidence which shows the direction of growth without measuring the extent to which growth has taken place. To start to build a desirable habit or to break an undesirable one may represent more real growth than rapid progress later although there is less to show for the

[4] Chadderdon, "Evaluation of Evidence in Measurement," *Practical Home Economics,* 13:363. December, 1935.

former. Well-rounded development is always desirable. Emphasis on good grooming and attractive dress may cause girls to ask for more than their share of family money or to fail to do their share of work at home or to spend more for clothes than they should in relation to other needs. The teacher's emphasis on good fabrics may contribute to the disintegration of the girl who cannot have the better things. "Evaluation, then, is not a mechanical process. Data must be interpreted in terms of desired objectives, of the interplay of objectives, and of the desirable development of individual pupils."[5]

Informal Measurement

Informal is used here to refer to situations in which measurement is subordinated to other values in the activity; formal, to those situations set up specifically for measurement purposes. The final test of the learning acquired is what the girl does in the unsupervised situation at home and in her personal-social relations in many other situations. No school testing can equal this in validity. Some teachers object to behavior in the unsupervised situation as the measure of learning because outside school students do not always do what they have been taught, nor are their standards as high as when working under the teacher's direction. The manner in which the out-of-school situation is met, however, represents the final outcome of their learning in terms of what they know how to do and their decision as to what is worth doing. Judgment in using school learning is part of the learning. Sometimes a girl may try to do better at home than she did at school; company is coming, and she wants things just right. At other times she may not do as well as she has learned to do. She may know how to match exactly the design in material in mending a garment and yet show good judgment by not matching when mending a nearly worn-out everyday dress.

Measurement such as this is secured through observation by the home economics teacher, other teachers, members of the family, friends, and, most important of all, the girl herself. Does she

[5] *Ibid.*, p. 37.

try to save steps as she works at home, spend her money with increasing satisfaction, try harder to see her father's point of view when he refuses her request, fall in line with group plans when outvoted? Does she apply principles learned to new situations, or act differently only when specific situations have been discussed in class? If grades and competitive ranking have been subordinated, the girl really desiring to learn will be keenly interested in every indication of progress and will seek help when failure shows the need for it. She must see the teacher's interest, however, as interest in her progress and in the help she needs and not as it affects a grade at school. Students should be encouraged to see the possibilities for self-evaluation in informal measurement.

Of the school-planned situations, home projects offer the best mediums for measuring growth. With this as one purpose of home project work, the teacher and the girl will be constantly alert as to how far she can take the initiative, how much of past learning she sees use for, and how well she can use it. Work done previously should be evaluated as to what was well done and what needs to be done better. The girl who simply makes a dress at home and brings it to school finished to count as part of her home project work has the wrong conception of such activities, regardless of whether the garment is well or poorly made. Home projects are limited in their use as testing devices by the teacher because of the time it takes to do them and because the teacher's direct contacts with the girl at work are too few. The teacher must then guide the girl to see how she can use home projects as a measure of her own progress.

The most convenient worth-while medium for the teacher in measuring progress in learning is in the school learning situation itself. Each activity in operation and each finished piece of work should be studied to see the individual pupil progress being made in realizing the large goals set up. Girls should be guided in evaluating their own improvement, both their way of working and the finished product. How did the planning of this job compare with the previous activity? Were the poor results due to overconfidence, to carelessness, or to the job's being too difficult at this time? Techniques should be compared with previous work. Is the stitch better regulated, stitching straighter than previously? Each

new learning activity provides a testing as well as a teaching situation if the teacher and the girl will see its value for that purpose. The girl who has made a dress should have made progress in planning a piece of work, in using time, in doing certain manipulative operations. The teacher may have observed that some girls did not have all their materials on hand when needed; that a few girls, wanting to do as much stitching as possible at one time, had not taken advantage of opportunities to stitch when a machine was not in use and had wasted time later in waiting because they had nothing else to do; that certain girls were inclined to agree in discussion with others who were usually right without thinking for themselves.[6] In evaluating the work of the individual girl, these things can be discussed with her and ways of overcoming them planned, the next activity being used as a means of testing progress in their learning.

Teachers as well as students are inclined to think that an activity carried out once successfully is learned. Girls will be quite sincere in telling about the lovely lemon pie made in class and make a lumpy or raw sauce for a pudding at home that night. They will spend a period learning how to sort, stack, and wash dishes, and violate rules of sanitation, esthetics, and common sense in doing the dishes in their regular cookery work. The pupil's ability to go ahead, to meet new situations, to use learning in new ways are important characteristics to look for.

An essential point in any testing is to recognize what is being tested. Many teachers fail to read the real meaning of a situation. Some students are especially clever in falling in line with those practices which the teacher shows she rates high. The teacher needs to know whether they wash their cooking dishes as they go along because she has shown them she favors that practice or because they now see it as a time-saving procedure. A girl may have a nicely constructed slip because she asked for help at every turn; her progress in following directions may be excellent, in thinking for herself, extremely limited. Informal measurement, thoughtfully carried out, should eliminate most needs for specially planned practical tests except perhaps as pretests at the beginning of a unit or course.

[6] See pp. 138; 151.

Emphasis in Formal Measurement

Formal testing has long been the teacher's tool for grading. Oral testing was the basis of the old-type recitation. Pupils learned information outside the classroom to be tested there. Written tests and examinations were entirely of the essay type until the objective written examination replaced them in part of the testing. The individual interview in which the teacher attempts to find out how far the student has progressed in his learning and to locate his difficulties by talking with him and seeing him at work is a modification of the oral test. Home economics in its regular teaching offers many opportunities for the informal oral test, the individual interview, and the practical test.

The attention given to formal testing depends largely upon the point of view of the individual teacher or the school system in which she works concerning competitive grading. Teachers interested in individual measurement for the purpose of locating difficulties and continuing learning will approach the problem differently from those who are concerned with relative ranking and final grades. The objective of education will influence the type of testing given. Tests are valuable only as they measure the objectives they set out to test. The teacher who sees the ability to direct one's own education and the ability to meet new situations through thinking as important tools of learning and the scientific attitude as a desired general behavior pattern will plan a test to measure these things. This will be a different type from that planned by the teacher who is most interested in pupils acquiring information, carrying out teacher-assigned activities, using school-acquired techniques imitatively in out-of-school situations. No one type of examination seems to answer all purposes. The teacher should study the values of the different kinds of measurement and select the form which seems to measure best the particular learning to be tested at that time.

Formal Measurement—Essay-Type Examinations

The essay-type examination came into disrepute largely because of difficulties in grading uniformly. The subjective element en-

tered in very strongly. When the same paper was graded by different teachers, not only did its score show a wide range, but the rank assigned it in a set of papers also varied widely. The papers graded best by one teacher might rank very low when graded by another teacher. It was also found that a teacher, grading the same paper at different times, varied widely in the marks she assigned to it. Other factors besides the test itself—facility in expressing oneself, legibility, spelling, neatness, form—have influenced the grading. The pupil who didn't know too much sometimes did better than the one who was really better prepared. The better student, recognizing fine points in possible answers, might hesitate to put down as much as he knew in answering a question. Other criticisms grew out of the small amount of ground covered in the essay-type examination, the time required for grading, and the difficulty of explaining to the pupil the points on which he was marked down.

Arguments in favor of the good essay-type examination have centered around its value in testing ability to think independently in solving a problem, to organize learning, and to express oneself; in asking for supporting evidence to a position taken, and in understanding the pupil's approach to a problem, his habits of thinking. It must not be assumed that all examinations of this type do these things, but rather that they may be set up in such a way as to realize these values better than they can be realized at present by other tests.

The essay-type examination can be improved greatly. Its use should be limited to that type of testing which it seems to do better than other procedures. There is little reason for using it when information alone is wanted. It has great value, however, in finding out the basic ideas a pupil has arrived at as a result of the study in a learning unit. In a good learning unit definite objectives to be attained are set up. The basic learning necessary for achieving the goals is decided upon and learning experiences selected. The last step is for the pupil to organize his learning, select the data significant in that situation, and show his progress in attaining the scientific attitude and the ability to think.[7] Such

[7] See p. 161 for essay-type examination at the end of a learning unit.

a test becomes a teaching activity as well as a testing device, and so has added value.

Before preparing the test questions, the teacher should think through very carefully what the pupils are supposed to have learned. The questions to be used should be carefully worded. An examination with one or two carefully prepared questions at the end of a unit or two or three at the end of a longer period is usually better than one with more questions. Most tests and examinations are prepared too hastily. Questions which can be broken down into subordinate parts clarify the larger point at issue. If the teacher considers the questions as having different values in grading, this should be indicated to the pupils. The answer or answers which the teacher considers correct should be written by her as she prepares the question. This will help her at the time in clarifying the stating of the question itself and in getting some idea of how much time should be allowed for taking the test. She will often be surprised to see how long it takes to write an answer that satisfies her. Time to think is an essential part of essay-type examinations. Frequently, the time allowed is no more than enough to write out the answers if the pupils knew without thinking what to say. In answering questions, pupils should be encouraged to make notes and to outline their points before they begin writing the final answers. They should be told to be as brief as clarity permits, including only those points which have definite bearing on the problem under consideration. Such practices enable the teacher to test their methods of thinking as well as to find out the results of their thinking.

The papers should be sampled before the final evaluation begins. A few of the best papers should be read to see whether additions should be made to the answers set up by the teacher when the test was prepared. Attention to legibility, spelling, and expression, except as it affects the correctness of the answer should be eliminated in considering the answers from the standpoint of learning in home economics. Only by doing this can tests become diagnostic in value. A girl may know the name of a fabric but not how to spell the word. It is the spelling, then, and not the name which she must learn, and this should be recognized. Each paper should be marked critically and carefully or a general discussion

conducted using as a basis the composite findings of the examination. The pupils should have access to their papers during this discussion, and they should be allowed sufficient time to study them as the discussion moves on. In addition, individual conferences with some students may be desirable.

Grading is necessary only if the school system requires it. In grading, the first question should be read and marked for all papers before the second is graded. If the papers are grouped as they are read and each grouping reread, the grading will be fairer. Grading of such examinations is usually more objective if the teacher does not know to whom the papers belong at the time of grading. Papers should be corrected for spelling, general form, grammar, and expression, and an attempt made to locate the pupil's difficulties. It may be necessary to ask the help of the English teacher in doing this. It is not the number but the nature of the errors that counts. A single basic error may cause half the mistakes made in a single paper. A separate diagnosis may be given, indicating the pupil's difficulties in using language, spelling, and writing as tools of expression, but this should not be confused with learnings of other kinds if testing is to indicate to the pupil what he has learned and what is to be done next. Such testing takes time, and should result in fewer examinations having decidedly greater educational value; those given will really serve a teaching function.

Formal Measurement—New-Type Examinations

New-type examinations is a general term which has been given to written tests other than those of the essay type. Early tests of this type were called objective tests because they could be graded objectively and this name is commonly given to them today. The right answer for a certain question was a matter of common agreement, and all persons marking the same paper would arrive at the same score. Such examinations have been advocated as having several specific values: more ground can be covered in an examination, grading is easy, and the resulting scores are uniform, pupils can locate their mistakes without difficulty, and composition, spelling, and legibility do not enter in to confuse the measuring of

other learning. Some new-type tests today make provision for variability in the answers selected and for writing in comments of one kind or another.

As so frequently happens with a new procedure, some enthusiasts would discard all previous ways of testing for the new method. Even the best objective tests are open to criticism when made the sole basis of measurement. Common criticisms are that the student may recognize the answer when he would not be able to recall it; that ability to select and organize material is not tested; that no clue is given the teacher as to the way the pupil approaches a problem regardless of whether the answer is right or wrong. Other criticisms may be made of poor objective tests as well as of poor tests of other types. Early objective tests were used almost entirely to test for information—the acquiring of factual knowledge. This use continues but they are being used increasingly to test for understanding and ability to apply learning. Some progress has been made in developing tests which measure such personal characteristics as attitudes, appreciations, and taste. New-type tests have also been set up dealing with ability to do things. In the main, however, learning of the last-mentioned type is better tested in the practical situation itself.

Some advocates, at least, of the objective-type test appear to have overrated its objectivity. "It is obvious that the leading claim that the new-type examination is more objective than the essay-type, is a valid one when examined from the viewpoint of the ability of several teachers to agree upon the scores earned by the students."[8] However, "The teacher must use judgment in deciding what he will use—that is, he must decide 'subjectively' which questions are best for the purpose. Such a decision is by far the most important one which he is required to make since it determines the basis upon which he is to determine progress toward objectives."[9] Teachers must also decide upon the type of test to use, the emphasis to place upon different aspects, the value of different kinds of answers. Not all experts will agree as to which is more important for the student—to say that he does not know or to make a guess

[8] H. B. Alberty and V. T. Thayer, *Supervision in the Secondary School,* p. 344. D. C. Heath and Company. 1931.

[9] *Ibid.,* p. 344.

at the answer—nor do they agree as to when a guess is a guess and nothing more and deserving no credit and when it is an intelligent approach to the problem and deserving some credit.

The best testing material in home economics is the teacher-prepared test, whether of the essay or objective type. Any test to be useful must be an accurate measure, and it must test what it claims to test. Finding out that girls can classify foods, plan balanced menus, and tell how different dishes are prepared may be worth while, but it is not testing their ability to prepare meals. Knowing that ginghams, voiles, and organdies are cotton materials does not insure ability to identify these fabrics when the occasion demands it. Each objective test must be studied for its reliability and validity. Objective tests, to be useful, must be easily administered and easily graded. Pupil instructions accompanying objective tests are an important part of such tests and must be as carefully stated as the test items themselves.

There is a tendency now to work for correlations in objective testing, to find out the correlation between the level of attainment in some easily tested area and ability in a field more difficult to test, or to find out the correlation between an easily administered test and a more difficult test of proved validity in testing the same learning. Such correlations will have to be carefully checked to have value. There can be no guesswork about excellence in one area meaning excellence in another. It may be worth while to know that, in general, the girl who knows facts about food preparation is more likely to be able to prepare food than the one who does not, but that is still a long way from knowing how well a particular girl does prepare it and where she is having difficulty.

Objective tests in common use fall into two general classes: the recall—the completion or the single-word answer to a question; and the recognition—the correctness of the answer given is indicated as in the true-false, yes-no type, or the answer is selected as in the single- or multiple-choice, matching, ranking, classification, or identification tests. A third type of objective test has more recently come into use, the inference test, in which the correct answer is based upon ability to propose an inference, to apply principles to new situations, or to make possible explanations of an

inference given. Some give the general term problem-solving to this type of test.

The making of good objective tests depends, first, upon a study of the objectives and their interpretation into the pupil behavior which should mark successful learning and, second, the sifting out of the learning which can best be tested by this type of testing. It takes time to make good tests. Questions and statements must be judged on clarity and worthwhileness and the limitations of the answer. The teacher who is teaching for pupil decisions on the best way of meeting new situations will plan a different objective-testing program from one who is interested in the learning of correct answers. Facts and undisputed ways of doing things can be tested quickly and accurately by objective tests. A modified objective test and leeway in grading will have to be provided for testing other learning if individual judgment and ideas are aims of education. One girl may select the desirable situation as one in which dishes are done after supper, even though it shortens the family social hour in the evening. She lives in a rural home where there is too much to do in the morning to begin the day washing last night's dishes. Another girl, in a small family in which both parents work outside and a servant comes in every morning, may see stacking the dishes as the only thing to do. Each girl should be marked correct for her family situation, but she should also come to see under what circumstances another practice would represent a good decision.

Teachers are sometimes tempted by the ease of making certain kinds of tests to use them in areas in which that type has little or no value. It is desirable to know that a girl can thread, regulate, and use a sewing machine, but the ability to use the machine is the best way to test these learnings. There is no value in setting up objective tests to measure them. A test to measure her knowledge of the parts of the machine should be limited to what is considered important for her to know. The more detailed parts should not be included in a test just because it is easy to prepare items concerning them.

The recall test may be single-word answers to questions or the completion of statements: What is the leavening agent in popovers? *Air.* Pongee is made from *raw silk.* Their use is limited

since their value is based entirely on a teacher's desire to test for accurate information. There is also danger of confusion if too many blanks are left; and, if too few, the chances of the bright pupil's guessing the correct answer from the rest of the context or the number of blanks are greatly raised. Some pupils have difficulty in this type of test because they cannot put their answer into the exact number of spaces allowed. More blanks than are needed may be provided with a statement in the directions to the effect that not all spaces need be used. Controlled-completion tests, falling into the group of recognition tests, provide a list of words or phrases from which the answers are to be selected. Usually there are more answers than are needed, and an answer may be used more than once. Needless to say, statements used for completion testing should not be copied from the text. "The problem in constructing completion tests is to provide blanks, each of which may be properly filled in by only one correct response, without making the test more a measure of intelligence or of ability to manipulate words than a measure of the knowledge of the idea being tested. Students who do not know the idea itself are sometimes given clues by the sentence structure. Other students who know the fact itself may fail on the test because they are unable to manipulate their language to fit the blanks."[10]

The true-false test and variations of it have been among the most used objective tests, probably because they have seemed easy to prepare. Good tests of this type are not nearly as easy to set up as first appears. Although the answer must be true or false, immediately excluding a large number of statements, the statements must be sufficiently borderline in nature to raise doubts as to which they are. "A true-false statement must be so carefully worded that the necessary judgment of its truth or falsity will depend upon an understanding of the idea to be tested and may not be surmised from the peculiarities of expression."[11] Guessing has always entered largely into the answering of the true-false test except in those cases in which the teacher has been able to get a high degree of cooperation from the students in a sincere at-

[10] R. W. Tyler, *Constructing Achievement Tests,* p. 42. The Ohio State University, 1934.

[11] *Ibid.,* p. 42.

tempt to find out just what they do know. The fifty-fifty chance that the answer guessed may be right seems to be too much of a challenge for many students to resist. There is also the danger that the good student does more poorly because she sees beyond the obvious and hence hesitates to commit herself on a statement on which the poorer student has no doubts. One modification of the true-false test provides opportunity to correct the wrong answer. A true statement is marked true. In the statement that is false, the one word of those words not underlined which makes it false is crossed out, and the word which would make the statement true is then written in the space before the statement.

true Care should be taken to cook leafy vegetables quickly.
high Cheese cooked at too ~~low~~ a temperature becomes stringy.

This modification in the true-false test seems to reduce guessing to a minimum and at the same time to increase the testing of the student's understanding of subject matter. These tests are limited in usefulness, however, and are hard to construct so as to be clear in meaning and at the same time to present a real decision situation.

The yes-no test has proved useful in testing opinions about concrete situations. A room arrangement is planned, a complete costume or a single dress provided, pictures of rooms or clothing put before the class, with a series of statements which are to be marked yes or no.

_____ Dark brown shoes and purse would look better with this costume than the black ones.
_____ The belt would be improved by using a buckle in place of the tie fastening.
_____ The costume would be especially becoming to a brunette with a rosy complexion.

The value in such tests lies in the necessity of applying general principles to a concrete situation. The weaknesses lie in employing a situation used in class, thus allowing memory to play a large part in the correctness with which the questions are answered and in the failure to test ability either to organize materials or to use them.

The single- and multiple-choice test provides for the selection of one or more answers from a list. Sometimes only one answer is

to be chosen, the only correct one, or the best one; in other cases all correct answers are to be indicated; in still others, a judgment is to be passed on each statement.

The small child should be

_____ 1. Allowed to choose his own food.
_____ 2. Given food in small helpings.
_____ 3. Given sweets only as part of the meal.
_____ 4. Taught to eat foods he dislikes by being rewarded for eating a small quantity.
_____ 5. Required to eat everything on his plate.

The single-choice test rates higher than the true-false type since the answer must be selected from a number of possible answers. Its value depends largely upon the plausibility of the statements included in the list and the degree of discrimination necessary to select the correct one. The multiple choice adds value by making more than one answer possible. The number of correct answers should vary with the different statements in the series. "In formulating a multiple choice test it is very necessary to have alternatives which are plausible and commonly confused with the right response, otherwise the student can choose the right response because the wrong responses are not plausible. The formulation of these alternatives is often difficult."[12] The teacher who wishes to use this type of test will find it desirable to make note of plausible wrong answers, while the teaching is going on, for future use in testing.

Matching tests increase in value when the number of terms or answers exceeds the statements to be matched, when the answers may be used in more than one place, when some statements have no matching term in the list, and when some terms are not cared for in the list of statements.

	1. bemberg
_____ cotton	2. crepe de chine
	3. damask
_____ flax	4. pongee
	5. percale
_____ ramie	6. gingham
	7. flannel
_____ silk	8. pineapple cloth
	9. serge

[12] *Ibid.*, p. 42.

_____ synthetic	10. rayon
	11. taffeta
_____ wool	12. voile
	13. tweed

The master-list has been developed[13] as a more valuable type of the multiple-choice or matching test. In this *the significant terms or names* for a course or certain aspects of it are selected and arranged either in alphabetical or logical order. A list is then prepared for testing. The pupil, by selecting a term or terms from this master list, shows his understanding of the field.

_____ bran muffins	_____ cabbage	1. body-regulating
_____ potatoes	_____ bananas	
_____ cheese	_____ pecans	2. heat-producing
_____ coffee	_____ oranges	3. tissue-building
_____ peanut butter	_____ mayonnaise	
_____ milk	_____ tomatoes	4. weight-increasing

The terms in the master list must be significant and complete so far as the particular test is concerned. They are arranged in such order that the student need not reread them if he knows the answer. They may be used in more than one place and more than one may be used to answer the test item.

In a ranking test the pupil expresses preferences by giving rank to the test items. It may be a series of menus to be evaluated for certain purposes; the steps in washing dishes, doing the family laundry, or preparing a meal, arranged in miscellaneous order. In taking the test the girl numbers her choice of menus or the steps of the job in the order in which she would do them. Answers will vary except in those cases in which the situation is undisputed. The order in which people do work jobs varies, and in certain aspects one way may be as good as another. In studying laundering one girl may have reached the conclusion that all clothes should be soaked, and may plan to do this the night before; another girl may decide that only the more soiled ones need soaking, and may plan to attend to this before the washing is started. These two girls would rank the steps in laundering quite differently, and without more data no teacher can say that one is right and the other wrong. One girl may make her biscuits when she makes her pastry and put them in the refrigerator until time to bake

[13] *Ibid.*, pp. 41-52.

them. One family may prefer hot shortcake and another cold. Such factors influence ranking.

Classification tests may be grouping of foods, fabrics, operations, processes.

Foods valuable for iron are

_____ bananas	_____ sweet potatoes	_____ rye bread
_____ liver	_____ celery	_____ tomatoes
_____ milk	_____ spinach	_____ lemons

In some tests of this type classifying depends upon a student's first recognizing a basic principle and them making a selection.

A person susceptible to colds should eat plentifully of

_____ potatoes	_____ bananas	_____ whole-wheat bread
_____ liver	_____ milk	_____ tomatoes
_____ oranges	_____ beef steak	_____ celery

Such tests may be set up to measure ability to see relationships and to apply facts and principles learned.

The identification test may consist of pictures of furniture to be identified as to style; houses, as to type of architecture; actual fabrics, as to name. This test works well with concrete materials and is worth while if ability to identify the fabrics, style of furniture, or kitchen utensils happens to be important.

The inference test may be a recognition test in which the individual selects from a list of explanations the one that seems to apply best to the situation set up, or he may propose an answer to the situation. The special value in this test is in dealing with *a new situation*, a problem not faced before, to which the student applies previous learning. The set-up may call for selecting or proposing an inference, explaining an inference given, applying a principle to a new situation, or telling how a statement given could be proved or disproved.

An electric iron uses more electricity per hour and hence costs more to operate than an electric washer. Why?

Hose are on sale marked "No seconds—49¢ a pair." What conclusions can be drawn?

Mrs. Smith is making soft molasses cookies using this recipe:

1 cup molasses	½ cup butter melted	
1¾ tsp. soda	2 tsp. ginger	flour
1 cup sour milk	1 tsp. salt	

After adding the soda to the molasses and beating thoroughly according to the directions given, she discovers that the milk is only slightly turned. There is plenty of rich sour cream. What is the best thing for her to do?

Pupils need more time in taking an objective test than many teachers realize. They should be allowed reasonable time in which to weigh decisions. If they know the answer at once, the test is either too easy or it measures memory only. A teacher should be looking constantly for behavior which indicates growth in realizing an objective. Notes made of such situations will be helpful later in both formal and informal testing. Test items which have proved satisfactory should be kept for use in building later tests. It takes time to prepare a good test. In making a good objective test, the teacher puts in as much time as she could possibly use in the careful grading of an essay-type test. The saving to her comes only from building on these results in future testing. Clear directions are essential and should be thought of always as part of the test. Clarity of expression and the avoidance of double meanings and catch phrases are important.

Experts in the field of testing are working constantly to broaden the field of usefulness for objective tests and to improve their validity and reliability. The modified true-false is an attempt to eliminate certain weaknesses in the early true-false test. The conditioned-completion, the modified multiple-choice, and the matching tests, and especially the master list, are changes which test more accurately pupil understanding of learning experiences. The inference test is a recent addition, directed to the testing of the ability to see meanings in situations and to apply learning to new problems. The good teacher will be alert to developments in the field of formal testing just as she will be alert to new opportunities in informal testing. She will also keep in mind that at present none of the testing experts recommends one type of test as the true measure of success in learning in any field, nor does anyone hold out a promise at this time that such a test will be worked out.

The decisions which depend in the end on individual preferences and ideas of values are not being tested objectively, nor can they ever be if objective testing is defined as meaning common agreement as to the right answer. The objective test can measure

the individual's ability to take all important factors into consideration in making a decision, but it cannot say which is right or wrong: selecting a home in the suburbs or an efficiency apartment in the downtown section; preferring a family of five children to the best books, concerts, travel, and no children. The previous experiences of the individual, the things he has come to value most, influence him in selecting what seems to him the best answer.

Score Cards—Rating Scales

Score cards are helpful devices for both teachers and pupils in evaluating work. Points concerning the making of a garment or the preparing of a meal may be set up and weighted on their relative value by the class, or the class may use a score card already prepared, modifying it as seems desirable. Score cards may deal with the final product—pastry, a dress, a painted chair; or with a way of working—saving steps in preparing meals, saving time in making a dress; or they may combine into one score card points bearing on both the product and the way it was secured. Score cards prepared by the students in advance are most useful as they furnish a guide for working as well as a measure for rating the final product. Sometimes pupils with little experience find it desirable to change the weighting of points after the job is well along or even finished. A class making slips gave "fitting" a comparatively low rating and "technique" a high one. When these same girls made dresses, they became conscious of the importance of well-fitting undergarments and questioned their previous rating. The teacher had expected this and so had made no suggestions for change at the time the slips were made.

The setting up of product scales or levels of attainment in ways of working is valuable in measuring growth. The teacher may keep samples of various operations—stitching on the sewing machine, buttonholes, flat-fell seams—and, with the help of students, construct a scale by which each girl can measure her progress as work goes on. The samples may be arranged in rank order and five to seven of them selected to represent steps from a low to a high degree of skill. With the teacher's help, the girl may wish to

select the level of skill in a particular operation which she hopes to attain during that unit.

Levels of attainment can also be set up in descriptive terms. The group may have decided on the important things about getting a meal, making a garment, or carrying out a home project, and then set up each separate point in different levels, representing performance to be worked for. One important point in making a garment would be

Placing a garment for cutting. Descriptive terms representing levels of attainment would be

a. Lays the larger pieces on correctly.
b. Lays the entire pattern on correctly.
c. Lays pattern on correctly and in the most economical way.

Each step represents progress in development. An essential point together with levels of attainment for an advanced class planning meals would be

Attention given to nutrition factors in meal planning:

a. The meal is well-balanced in relation to food principles.
b. The meal is well-balanced in relation to the needs of the group.
c. The meal is well-balanced in relation to the diet for the day.

Different rating scales may need to be prepared for different groups. Levels desired in meal planning will vary for first- and second-year girls. Emphasis in home project work the first year may be on short, well-planned projects, practice to attain greater skill, and application of school learning to concrete situations; emphasis the second year may be on self-direction, breadth of application of the principles learned, and following special interests and talents. Using the same scale for home projects both years, when different values are being stressed, adds to the confusion of pupils in evaluating their work.

Self-Evaluation of Work

Emphasis has been placed throughout this discussion on the importance of students' participating in the planning and carrying out of an evaluation program. They should be helped to see ways in which learning can be evaluated, encouraged to evaluate

their own learning, and acquainted with the results of the more formal evaluation carried out by the teacher and its significance for them. Self-evaluation is important for two primary reasons: one, that much learning can only be honestly evaluated by the student; the other, that self-appraisal is essential in self-directed living. Self-evaluation like other abilities, however, must be learned. Students in some cases should be supplied with such instruments, and in others helped to find or set up their own.

The girl who is planning to refinish a chair will do a much better job if she examines various chairs to see the difference between nicely and poorly finished woods. She may then set for herself a descriptive standard of what she wishes to achieve and attempt to find out how to secure each quality that she wants. If the teacher has pieces of wood which show each step in the process it will help the girl to understand what it means to remove all the old paint or varnish, to sandpaper to a smooth grain, to apply new finish with the grain of the wood, to remove excess finish, to prevent overlap by long strokes and by lifting the brush at the end of a stroke. With this help a girl may check herself at each step and make changes in her procedures before the damage is done. Many teachers have illustrative material set up to show the steps of a process so that students may in part teach themselves. These have equal value in self-testing.

One teacher used exhibits as self-testing devices in clothing selection. These were placed in a large exhibit case in a general student reading room. With each exhibit was a list of questions prominently placed. A card with the answers was in a less conspicuous place. One such exhibit was made up of a girl's suit, several blouses, gloves, scarfs, hose, purses, and costume jewelry in one-half of the case and a boy's suit, several shirts and sweaters, extra trousers, neckties, hose, and kerchiefs in the other half. Situations were set up describing the financial status, school and social activities of a boy and a girl. Each presumably owned the suit displayed. Questions were then asked about which other articles would represent the best selections for each for different purposes. All the articles were in good taste, the choice being entirely a matter of judgment when funds were limited. A second exhibit was made

up of costume jewelry. Articles were paired and the choice in this instance was a matter of taste. Needless to say, many students besides those in the class studied the exhibits.

A second teacher prepared a color portfolio for self-evaluation. This was made up of charts showing hue, value, and intensity. This teacher used cloth samples since that represented the material in which students would be called upon to select. Opposite each chart or set of charts was a series of questions referring to the colors themselves and their use in clothing and house furnishings. The answers were placed on the reverse side of the sheet containing the questions. This portfolio was placed on a shelf in a student reading room for students' use whenever they wanted to test themselves.

Students should be encouraged to feel a responsibility for evaluating their own learning as they work at school and in activities outside the school. They should constantly ask themselves, What did I learn in this situation? What mistakes did I make? Why did I make them? What should I do next time to prevent similar errors or difficulties?

Pupil-Progress Records

Emphasis has been placed on individual pupil growth as the primary concern of students and teacher. Pupil-progress records, then, are essential—records of plans made for and with the pupils, of factors which make a difference in planning the learning situation or in appraising achievement, of changes taking place during the process, and of the final results. These records fall into three groups as determined by their use: the first, a record of plans and progress for the joint use of students and teacher; the second, material which the teacher needs for pupil guidance but which may or may not be open to the students; the third, information needed for specific grading or appraisal purposes.

The pupil-progress record to be used jointly by teacher and pupils should provide for four types of information: first, individual pupil goals; second, a record of where learning should begin or the learning the student has; third, means by which progress is

to be recorded or the behavior to be expected when learning has been achieved; and fourth, actual recording of progress. Goals may be set up in whatever form will be most useful to the teacher and the pupil. Some will find it convenient to plan them for the different phases of work, personality development, food study, management. Only the larger purposes should be stressed by the teacher in the first planning with the pupils, the more specific objectives being set up by each student as the need for them arises. The major purposes of a particular foods unit may include planning and preparing low-cost meals, one-dish and oven meals, meals for several days; improving skill in preparing several dishes at one time; and trying out new recipes based on foundation cookery of the previous year. Pretesting, both formal and informal, should help the teacher and the girl find out where her learning should begin. Rating scales showing levels of achievements or other devices should be set up for the different activities and each pupil check her present level of achievement for an activity. She will then set for herself her goals for the unit and the ways in which she intends to check her own progress. The system she uses is of minor importance. It is of major importance, however, that she set goals, locate her beginning place with a fair degree of accuracy, and indicate from time to time her progress toward the goals she has set. The worth of such checking lies in forming the habit of evaluating work rather than in a high degree of accuracy in placement at any time.

The teacher is interested in these pupil-progress records and will help the individual student in planning them and in appraising her progress from time to time. She, however, will need additional information both as a basis for guiding students in their first planning and for evaluating their progress as a basis for further guidance. Mention has already been made of the need for the teacher to know the students.[14] To this background information about students, the teacher will want to add evidences of growth secured through observation as well as the results of more formal measurement.

Observation of behavior and recording the behavior observed takes time. There must be selection, then, and this selection of

[14] See pp. 71-72.

anecdotes to record should be in relation to the philosophy of education which is the basis of the entire program. The teacher who is interested in growth in ability to direct one's own living will look for evidence which indicates success or failure to do this successfully. Notes such as these might appear in Mary's record.

Sept. 5. Mary began her planning only after I had asked her several questions. I had to go back to her several times.

She's bright enough apparently but has no confidence in herself.

12. Miss Jones, Mary's homeroom teacher, says Mary never opens her mouth in homeroom discussion periods. She never makes any advances to students as they are assembling or after school. She seems to have no friends among the group.

I shall try to pair her off with some of the more friendly girls.

Oct. 15. Mary made a plan today but did not begin work until I told her to go ahead.

Dec. 10. Mary began work today as soon as her plan was finished. Later asked me about a couple of points on her own.

I asked her and Jane to help me after school. Taught them a new technique and shall have them help some of the girls tomorrow.

Feb. 15. Mary volunteered to help Clara, who has been out two weeks, with her work.

Anecdotes should be clearly stated with all irrelevant material omitted. Some people advocate writing down *everything* that is connected with an incident. This, of course, is foolish. The teacher must decide what incidents to record. If she is to be trusted to make choices here, she should also be trusted to select the significant aspects of a situation to record. Anecdotes have their greatest value if accompanied by interpretative statements. Such statements should be kept separate from the account of the behavior itself. Other people—teachers, parents, friends, and the students themselves—may supply data which will prove helpful to the teacher in appraising student growth.

Grading in the usual school system has meant and still means competition. An increasing number of forward-looking educators are becoming interested in the progress of individual students. Some schools are reporting school work to parents and are promoting students on the basis of individual development and a level of achievement sufficient to do the next problem successfully instead of on the basis of marks by which pupils may make com-

parisons. Experimental work on the secondary level and in colleges points to greater emphasis on individual interests and needs. The recent revival of interest in honor groups and in graduation with distinction, however, indicates a trend toward a renewed interest in academic achievement and the putting of a special stamp of approval on that kind of excellence. These educators seem to be trying to do two opposing things at the same time: interest pupils in their own development along lines which seem best to the individual, and make certain lines of endeavor stand out as more worth while by offering special rewards for those who excel over others in these areas.

One strong argument made for competitive grading has been that it is the way things work out in real life, individuals are rewarded for doing better than others. Some people, however, would like to see the individual who is using his talents to the best advantage rewarded through finding the place in which he can lead a personally satisfying, socially acceptable life without having his success measured in terms of how well someone else is carrying on similar activities. Those teachers who must give grades based on a competitive system of marking should study the teaching situation as to the objectives set up and the ways of measuring attainment and then weight the different forms of behavior by which learning is to be measured. Points may vary in importance in grading from year to year. "Ability to use learning again—to repeat what has been done" may rate high early in the course, while "Ability to make new applications of learning" may be the behavior desired the second year. "Works out successfully, teacher-pupil-selected-and-planned projects" may represent a high level of attainment the first year, while "Selects her own projects in the light of the large objectives of the year and her own personal needs" may represent the goal desired for the second year.

No final grade, based alone on facts learned and the work completed either in the classroom or at home, can be justified. The way in which work is done, changes in ideals and attitudes must enter into any grading that is fair in terms of the objectives set up today. Pupil growth is the real measure of learning—growth in many different aspects of living, and all these should be given recognition in grading. Pretesting should set the lower level where

learning begins and individual measurement should indicate the progress made. Even though a school system requires that grades be recorded, pupils should be urged to see learning in terms of individual growth and should be satisfied only when they have progressed enough to feel repaid for the time being spent doing the work. The girls have helped decide upon the objectives. They should decide on what needs to be tested and how it can be done.

The ways in which work is to be graded should be decided upon early in a course jointly by teacher and students and in relation to the objectives of the course. The purpose of grading should be seen as that of showing to those concerned—students, parents, and teachers—the pupil growth which has taken place during a particular period and the pupil readiness to do the next work. In so far as it can be worked out, the final report of a student's work should include a record of her growth as well as her level of achievement—the former to show what has been learned during a particular period, the latter so that readiness to do later work may be evaluated.

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CHAPTER XIV

THE LEARNING UNIT

For a long time the day's lesson was the unit of teaching and learning. Early home economics organized its teaching around subject matter: a study of textile fibers, the growth and manufacture of cotton, the digestion of starch; and the techniques of cooking, sewing, and housewifery: making seams, cooking protein foods, sweeping a floor. As culminating activities at appropriate intervals, the students prepared and served a meal or made a garment.

Plans for curriculum making today[1] provide for the setting up of objectives of home economics as general behavior patterns and special abilities and their interpretation into behavior outcomes. The learning needed for achieving these objectives must then be determined; experiences for attaining the learning selected; and ways of measuring progress decided upon. Such planning should result in setting up large units of work, dealing with different phases of home economics or with large life situations which cut across many phases. These large units are perhaps the key to good planning not too large for the teacher inexperienced in organizing material to try out and yet of sufficient size to show direction of growth and progress made. For convenience in teacher planning and pupil learning, these large units, however, need to be seen in smaller *learning units*, each thought through to basic learnings, teaching procedures, illustrative and reference materials, and ways of evaluation. Such units will vary in length from two or three days to two or three weeks. It is with these smaller units of learning experiences that this chapter deals.

Learning—The Basis of Planning

Learning units today are organized around projects, problems, or topics. The project as the center of learning came in with voca

[1] See pp. 69; 75-79.

tional education. Learning is to be incidental to the successful carrying out of the project—an activity in its real-life setting—the refinishing of a chair, the making of a dress, the preparing of home suppers. Somewhat later attention turned to the problem as the focus of instructional planning. Learning centered around the meeting of true-to-life situations—few people know how much they spend for clothes. Are you getting more than your share? How can I be at ease in social situations? What kind of clothes does a high-school girl need? Some teachers, favoring large learning units but concerned that important subject matter may be neglected, have organized learning around central topics: cotton as a textile fibre, vitamins in the diet, behavior problems of preschool children. Activities appropriate to the acquiring of the subject matter are carried out.

Each of these practices is different from the others in certain respects. All, however, have one characteristic in common. The selection of each project, problem, or topic for study rests on the belief in some learning as desirable for the individual to have, not as an end in itself, but because it is needed in many situations in life. This learning may be knowledge, techniques of doing, behavior patterns, ideals, standards of value. Regardless of the name given to it or the form it takes, however, learning is seen by the teacher as a probable outcome before the activity is approved.

The first-grade children make a farm yard; the high-school girls make dresses; both projects producing results of interest and value to the pupils. The product itself is secondary from the teacher's standpoint, however, to the learning set up to be attained. The same may be said of all similar activities. She sees the making of dresses as important because knowing how to make dresses will help these girls be better dressed on the money they have to spend. It offers opportunities for creative expression which they will find satisfying. It will help in developing judgment in buying ready-made clothing. The high-school girl may be more interested in the dress, but she will learn more if the learning which may be attained stands out clearly in her mind; otherwise the making of a very simple dress may satisfy her because she will get a dress to wear that much sooner.

A second type of situation has a different kind of outcome in

view. The teacher is not greatly concerned as to the specific results, but she is concerned in the ability of the class to find a satisfactory solution to the problem. The members of a class have decided that they want to show their mothers in some special way what they have been doing. Many learning outcomes are possible. Several activities may solve the problem equally well. The teacher's only concern is that the problem be solved. The girls may decide to take the entire responsibility for the home work over a week-end, inviting their mothers to be their guests. They may plan a high tea at school to show their mothers how well they can entertain. They may arrange for a family recreation night at school affording pleasure to all the members of the family. The teacher's interest centers in the way the problem is attacked, not the particular activity selected. She wants to be certain that they weigh all sides of the situation and are open minded to suggestions, that they work cooperatively and reach final decisions which represent group agreement, and that responsibility is shared, each having a chance to do her best work in carrying out some part of the activity.

The use of a central topic as a focusing point is based on the theory that subject matter is important and that it has greatest value and is easiest learned when seen in its larger relationships. The teacher is interested in the girls' coming to a conclusion about the factors which make for a successful home life, which influence the buying of a home, or which enter into the planning of a wardrobe. She does not want the girls to agree on an evaluation of the factors, but she does want each one to know what to think about and to reach a conclusion for herself. A variety of approaches is possible. She may say, "Most people have clothes which they do not like. They do not harmonize with their other things; they have to be cleaned too often. Any one of a dozen things may be wrong. You're going to be working with clothes for the next few weeks. You'll be thinking about them off and on all year. How can you make plans for a wardrobe that satisfies?" The teacher, however, will want the thinking to go beyond the needs of any particular girl at that time. She will want each member of the class to arrive at a basis for the future planning of her wardrobe as well as meet her immediate problems.

Each of these situations has a different kind of learning as its

primary purpose, but learning in some form is what gives the experience meaning. These learnings may mean ways of doing things, ability on the part of the learner to work her way through a problem, finding necessary facts on which to base her decisions, finding procedures which have been followed at other times in solving similar or related problems and selecting the one which seems best suited to a particular situation, working out a new plan for meeting a situation. In some cases knowledge may be desired, knowledge learned in such a way that it is usable in new situations but knowledge none the less: knowing how to plan balanced meals, to buy equipment, to prevent spread of disease, to get along with other people, to live within the income. The learning sought may, on the other hand, be skills, techniques: a certain performance level in using the sewing machine or the oven, handling patterns or fabrics. The teacher may be concerned in the acquiring of general patterns of conduct: the scientific attitude toward problems, ideals of home and family life, standards of values worth working for. The basic learnings set up as desirable to be attained during the year should be organized into related units of material to be used as the foundation for specific learning units.

The Project in Teaching

Alberty defines a project as "an activity, the aim of which is a result or accomplishment, other than learning (i.e. the acquisition of knowledge, skills, etc.), which is of value to the pupils."[2] "The by-product of the activity is the acquisition of knowledge, etc., considered to be valuable and worth while to the teacher."[3] These activities are of many kinds: making a dress, cooking a meal, planning an assembly program, entertaining the football boys, telling stories to little children. Some schools have built their educational program around the carrying out of these activities. Many activities are teacher planned and teacher assigned. The good project is teacher-pupil selected, a choice made among several on the basis

[2] H. B. Alberty, *A Study of the Project Method in Education*, p. 90. Ohio State University. 1927.

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 90.

of the resulting product and the worth of the new learning. Projects add value as they approximate realness and as the pupils see them as important activities to be carried out. Growth in planning, carrying out, and evaluating an activity are important factors in project teaching. Worth is measured in terms of the final product.

A dress assigned by the teacher and made more or less according to her requirements may fall short of being a worth-while project because of lack of interest on the part of the pupils. The same activity set up by the girls and accompanied by a strong desire to carry out may become an excellent project. The teacher may have had a good deal to do with their decision, but their attitude and their learning may be quite different when the activity is pupil initiated. The cooking of separate dishes at school as a step to becoming good cooks at home may lack the realness which makes it a good project. Preparing mid-morning lunch for some undernourished children or cooking meals may provide the elements needed. Planning the kind of house which will best meet the family needs may be interesting to a group and result in the selection of real plans, but in most instances the answer can be evaluated as to its suitability in meeting the situation only through the judgment of more experienced persons.

The teacher has in mind certain learnings which seem to her worth acquiring in approving a project. These may not be set up in detail, but she has a pretty good notion of what will come out of preparing Thanksgiving baskets for the relief organizations, redecorating the living area at school, making new linens for the dining room; and this will be true even though she has not planned the content of the baskets, the color scheme of the living room, or the material to be used in the luncheon sets.

The strong points in project teaching lie in the interest of projects for the pupils, the greater learning which comes from planning and carrying out an activity whose results are of immediate value. Guesswork as to what might happen if plans were put into operation is eliminated; results are self-evident. The weaknesses lie in the time it takes to do projects, the limits set by school conditions as to the projects which can be carried out, and the failure to organize resulting learning in terms of general principles. The

home project, which is becoming of increasing importance in home economics, removes many of the limitations on kinds of projects which may be made a part of the school work. The instruction in the classroom is made to fit into a larger activity going on at home.

A learning unit which is not limited by a project, but which may use a project as its central activity, has all the advantages of project teaching and none of its disadvantages. A cotton afternoon dress has been made. It meets all the requirements of a good project. If the learning unit ends with this, however, the learning is limited to the requirements of the dresses of lawn, dimity, and voile, the materials which the group used. Some of the girls sew well enough now to go on with embroidered materials, organdies, and cotton and synthetic sheers. All may wish to make collars and cuffs of some of these other materials. Such activities, however, do not require enough new learning to warrant setting them up as new class projects. The new learning needed can be related to the project already done as part of the unit. Organdy which retains its stiffness in laundering may be bought, but the girls may not know this and the sales person fail to tell them. Organdy and bemberg slide; organdy curls up. The size of the eyelets in fabrics of open design and the heaviness of the design in solid embroidery are important factors in selecting the style for making up such materials. Some materials need special care in laundering. Points about sewing on thin materials and general conclusions about buying need to be summed up as general principles. These additional learnings are worth while and can be learned economically at such a time.

Problem Solving and Teaching

People are being called upon constantly to do things never done before. Problems as the basis of learning units is an attempt to have the pupil arrive at his own answers or to accept those of others only after having studied them and passed judgment as to their worth in that particular situation. It is an attempt to get away from the acquiring of knowledge alone with the expectation that, when a situation arises in which the learning will be useful, it will be

forthcoming. Thinking is the basis of problem-solving teaching;[4] the development of the scientific attitude, a natural accompaniment.[5]

Life is full of problems. Some are important; some are insignificant. No teacher could spend more than a few minutes in a home without having her attention called directly or indirectly to a number of problems. Some are met in a satisfactory manner almost instantly and without apparent thought. The individual has had much experience with similar situations. Others cause considerable disturbance, upsetting the routine of life for some time before a working conclusion is accepted. The teacher who has been thinking of home economics as providing answers to her own problems of living will have no trouble in drawing from her own experiences and those of her friends many problems of common interest for the basis of group study. As she gets acquainted with the students and their homes, other problems will come to her attention. If the teaching is directed from the beginning toward help in personal and home situations, if home practice work and home projects are accepted as a natural part of the teaching, the girls will bring many of their own problems into the class discussions, and as one is being solved others will come to the front.

The teacher's real problem will arise not from inability to find problems, but from the difficulty of selecting the best ones for the purpose. Some teachers have a tendency to provide the cut-and-dried problem, using the same one over and over. Such problems, even when rich in meaning under some circumstances, may be artificial for a particular group. From the point of view of pupils, a good problem must meet three conditions. First, it should seem worth while to them, the results valuable not only now but also later. It should have arisen from a real situation or should be so closely related to one that its value outside the classroom is evident. The problem that is recognized as worth while will always be interesting. Second, the problem should be so defined that the end to be attained is easily recognized. The pupils should know what is involved in solving it. Third, the solving of the problem should challenge real effort, not be so difficult that the pupils have

[4] Chapter IX.
[5] Chapter VIII.

no beginning place or so easy that it does not seem worth doing. The scope of a problem influences its challenge to an individual or a group. It takes more than the stating of a question to turn a situation or topic into a worth-while teaching problem.

Problems are of three types: those which result in the securing of a common answer, those in which the answer is a matter of opinion or value, and those which have to do with working out a new answer. In this first type of situation, theoretically, two individuals dealing with the same data would arrive at the same answer. In practice, however, one may stop short of the other in collecting pertinent information, and so arrive at a different answer. Scientific study of nutrition and cookery processes of the last few years have changed the known facts very much, and two pupils using different books may arrive at different answers. The answer accepted in this type of problem should be supported by valid, reliable data.

The second type of problem calls for the weighing of possible answers and the making of a decision. The possible answers deal with established data and with past conclusions as to values. The solution depends upon one's *judgment* of what seems best for this particular situation, based on a consideration of all the facts. There may be no common answer to such a problem and no way of knowing whether or not the best one has been selected. Putting the decision into practice may result in satisfaction, but the individual will not know what would have happened if another conclusion had been accepted. Choices in simple matters may be based on experimentation. The individual may buy different brands of hose, use two cake recipes, several work schedules. In many problems, however, trying out is not possible. The individual cannot at the same time buy a house and rent one, try out different wardrobe plans, hold a part-time job and give all her time to homemaking. The creative problem calls for the working out of a new answer: the planning of a dress for best wear, the rearranging of the living-room furniture to have a better study place for the children, the making of a money plan for the family. Such answers are individual also, since the total conditions entering into each situation will be different.

Life situations are complex, a combination frequently of all

these types of problems. Questions may arise in a single situation, calling for the finding of facts and the arriving at a general conclusion or principle, the forming of a decision as to the best way to proceed, the working out of plans on which to base a decision. It seems undesirable to set up these minor questions as separate problems. They will measure up to the criteria set for problems only as they are seen as part of the large problem.

The members of a class are faced with the necessity for planning a wardrobe for themselves. Although a creative problem in its large aspects, calling for a new plan, every step is dependent upon forming judgments, making decisions based in turn upon choices between two or more courses of action and choices between facts. Shall it be a suit or a dress and coat? What color shall the new coat be? One girl is tired of brown. Shall she have fewer clothes and get rid of the brown wearing apparel that she has? What kind of an entertainment shall be given the incoming home economics girls? A choice is the essential element, but this rests on the making of a number of plans and the weighing of values. Which tailored suit represents the best value?—a judgment situation also but based largely on the consideration of facts, facts about the suits themselves and facts about the uses which the individual will make of a suit.

Learning to solve problems in the school situation will help in meeting situations in real-life which call for thinking. The most effective problems for teaching purposes are those that grow out of the lives of students. The teacher may help in formulating their questions into a problem of common interest or she may bring to the class a problem raised by an individual girl. Out of her familiarity with them and their home situations she may herself raise questions which will lead to setting up a problem.

These problems may be set up as a general question—Is it better to buy or rent?—or as questions dealing with specific situations—What will be best for the junior party dresses, or how shall the seniors be entertained? The first problem may lead to group agreement as to points to think about, followed by each girl's using these points in arriving at an answer to a specific situation familiar to her. The second problem may result in general limitations—an afternoon type of dress of cotton costing not over five dollars—

set up by the group with individual freedom on all other points. The third situation calls for entire group agreement. This may be group agreement concerning the general form of entertainment, the class then being divided into small groups to work on details to be approved later by the entire class. Except in the activity in which the group is interested in a common answer—rearranging the kitchen to make room for a laundry unit, buying silver and dishes for the dining room, preparing an assembly program—the best type of problem is the one which makes provision for both group and individual work.

The real test of the answer to a problem is that it works. Some answers may be tried out at school: the kitchen utensils can be bought; the meal prepared for the local board. Some can be tested at home: the girls live by their wardrobe plans; do their Saturday work by the new schedule. The trying out should be followed by a study of the results in action, a conclusion reached as to the value of the solution. The kettles may prove too large for much use at school; the bowls may chip easily; the men may be late for dinner and part of the food spoil from standing; the work schedule may leave no time for extras and emergencies and need several revisions before it really works.

Some solutions cannot be tried out in actual situations. In such cases the plans made and the decisions reached can be evaluated by those who have had more experience. They may be gone over by a teacher or the father or mother, or checked against the information in a book or magazine. Success in solving problems will show up in increased ability to solve other problems and in ability to use the specific learning acquired in similar and related situations. The teacher should constantly be on the alert to provide or point out opportunities for using learnings already gained. Pupils should also be encouraged to seek such opportunities for themselves.

The problem used as the only basis for organizing learning presents some of the same limitations as the project. There are learnings which the teacher considers important which are not easily set up as problems for students. Problems take time. If all the learning experiences are to be set up as problems, there will

be a good deal of overlapping. Learning is not always organized into general principles.

A learning unit which takes its point of departure from a problem, but which is not limited by it, has all the strengths of problem teaching and none of the weaknesses. The introductory problem of a learning unit may be providing a diet for a normal, pre-school child. Without setting up separate problems, the teacher may move on to a discussion of what happens when the diet is deficient in certain particulars. Questions may cause the class to break up into small groups to find the information needed. The introductory problem, on the other hand, may lead to a comparison of the normal diet of a child with their own, previously worked out; to the difficulty of providing a balanced diet in different seasons of the year; or to the plans which should be made by country people for the period when fresh fruit and vegetables are scarce at home. Some teachers will call these additional questions problems. Some of them, however, will serve their purpose with limited discussion and scarcely seem to deserve the attention which should be given to a real problem. Others may develop into problems for a particular group now or later. Deficiency diseases may become a problem at a later time and yet deserve some mention at the time of studying a normal diet for a small child. The home garden may become a problem for some groups; for others it may need little attention beyond the fact that providing a balanced diet throughout the year presents a different problem for country people than for city families.

Trends in Organizing Learning Experiences

Three changes have taken place in the organization of learning experiences in recent years. Each affects the planning of units of learning experience. What their influence will be upon home economics teaching in general remains to be seen. One is in the direction of building an individualized curriculum for each student. In this set-up, the student and the teacher together undertake to evaluate his needs, which home economics can best help in meeting. Mary's mother is working and she has to plan and prepare the evening meal for the family of five. She also does all the food buy-

ing. Clara's father is dead. Her mother is the sole support of the family of three. They are having trouble making ends meet. Clara wants help in planning their spending of money. Jane needs a new dress. In theory, each member of a class of thirty is working on her own problem. In practice, their concerns will be related closely enough so that there may be no more than five or six groups at work.

The philosophy behind such planning is sound. It represents a desire to meet the needs of the individual student in the way that and at the time when he needs it. Difficulties in practice, however, arise at several points. The teacher cannot meet all the demands of the students in a class at the time and in the way they need help. Nor does she have time enough outside school to do the necessary preplanning, securing of materials, or searching for sources of help. Students in most schools, even at the high-school level, have had little experience in directing their own learning, and waste a good deal of time waiting for the teacher. Few schools have the kind of teaching materials needed for this type of help, nor is what they have so arranged as to be most useful to students. Students frequently want to do and have a need for doing things which are beyond their readiness. Such activities, once started, demand too much teaching by the teacher. Planning is short-sighted and there is too much repetition of teaching. Over and over again throughout the year the teacher teaches the same thing to different individuals and small groups.

Most teachers who have used the project or problem method of organizing learning experiences have followed a course of study which set up projects or problems thought to be worth while and of interest to students at a particular level. The large units, into which they were organized, dealt usually with some phase of home economics—housing, foods, child development, and the like. A second recent change in organizing learning experiences has been in the direction of finding out group needs and interests and making them the basis of learning units. In point of time, emphasis, and order of units, the needs and interests of a particular group determine the learning experiences they have and provide the foundation for planning learning units. Such learning units may cut across all phases of home economics to meet a situation, al-

though this is not always true. Sometimes, but not always, they may offer opportunity for special individual activities in addition to the experiences common to all. Representative of this type of activity are units centering around: developing poise and self-confidence in social situations; meeting the food needs of high-school girls; planning for family good times together; getting more for our money; doing one's share of work at home. "Meeting the food needs of high-school girls" represents a unit which may in some situations be limited entirely to study in foods. "Doing one's share of work at home," on the other hand, may draw on every phase of home economics—caring for little children, buying food, caring for one's clothes, cooking supper, cleaning the living room.

Several difficulties are likely to arise in this plan of teaching as teachers are now trained. The teaching lacks unity. Learning is often scattered and is not organized into general principles. Planning lacks the long view. Desiring to meet students' immediate needs, neither the teacher nor the students look ahead, seeing the larger framework into which all learning is to fit.

The third change in organization of learning experiences has been in the direction of what is sometimes called an integrated homemaking program. The classroom situation is planned presumably to parallel more nearly the home situation. A variety of activities is going on at the same time. Some students may be doing laundry work; others, cooking. Some will be cleaning the living room; others, sewing. Some may be playing with little children in the bedroom. One girl may be working with the department accounts; another, acting as hostess for the day. Such teaching calls for a department that has all the features of a home and of the whole department in use all the time. The difficulties in this situation are the same as in the individualized teaching program. In fact, an individualized teaching program may be the basis for such planning although usually it is not. Such activities most often grow out of regular school planning, the members of a class taking their turn at carrying out the different activities. In any of these set-ups, learning may focus around the carrying out of a project, the solving of a problem, or the studying of large blocks of subject matter. The change is in the manner in which

these techniques are used rather than in introducing a new practice.

Planning the Learning Unit

Many strengths exist in the present practices of teachers in planning learning experiences. Two major weaknesses also exist in much of the planning. The first is the belief on the part of many teachers that certain home economics subject matter is important *per se*. Too many influences have made people different; too many other experiences are having their influence on students at the same time as they are in home economics classes for this to be true. Those in home economics who would best meet the needs of students must give up the idea of a preplanned curriculum to be followed in detail in teaching or the idea that all girls who take home economics must learn to sew, plan the spending of their money, or study the science of nutrition in home economics. This does not mean that there will be less planning, but more planning of a different kind.

The second weakness is in trying to find a pattern for teaching. Some would make the pattern the project method; others, problem solving. Some are trying to have a variety of things going on all the time on the theory that such instruction is more homelike or more functional *per se*. It is extremely doubtful if a common pattern can be found which would be equally valuable for all learning. Teachers who seek this are losing the values in many other good practices. There are times when group work will accomplish most; times, for individual work. The pupil-initiated activity has value, but so has the teacher-initiated one. Nor is there one best form for recording the planning. Good planning is teaching in thought before teaching in action. It involves a consideration of behavior outcomes, learning activities, teaching materials, and ways of measurement. It involves writing down in some orderly fashion the results of this thinking. The form used for a particular learning unit should be the form best suited to the kind of experiences used and most useful *for that particular teacher.*

The first step in planning the learning unit is to decide upon

the large purpose of the unit—the learning to be attained which will contribute to achieving the larger objectives set up for home economics as a whole. These purposes may be learning to get along with younger brothers and sisters; to do the family food buying; to dress suitably and becomingly on the money available; to be at ease in social situations; to plan and prepare wholesome, appetizing family suppers; to understand one's own growth and development; to take good care of one's health.

Purposes such as these stem from the general objectives, but are of a size to give teacher and students a working basis for selecting and delimiting activities and subject matter. The specific learnings which each objective entails will depend upon the students' needs and their past learnings. The teacher who knows her students, their homes and the community will have some notion of what these learnings will be. The social situations in one community will be different from those in another; the social needs of one student will differ from those of another in certain respects. What the student already knows how to do will change still further what the individual student needs to learn. In her planning, the teacher should anticipate these learnings in so far as her experience with this group and other groups make this possible. She should expect other learnings to be added and emphasis to change as students help in the final planning of the learning unit and as it is carried out. Pretesting is important, but this may be a part of the learning in a previous unit rather than the setting up of a special test.

In a unit that centers around learning to get along with younger brothers and sisters, the teacher may expect that most students will need to learn such specific things as: each person has his own individuality which others should respect in their relationships with him; older brothers and sisters have a responsibility in helping the younger ones grow up; many difficulties with younger members of the family grow out of their struggle to achieve a more mature relationship in the family. A learning unit in foods for a rural group may center around arriving at the basic concept that an adequate diet throughout the year should be the controlling factor in deciding upon the amount and variety of food to grow for home

consumption. Other units dealing with foods will have other learnings.

Care should be taken to see that the pupils realize that new experiences may change still further the answers which now seem true. Much of what is now known about nutrition was unknown a few years ago; many of the fabrics on the market today are the result of recent discoveries; many of the processes of cleaning have changed in the last decade. Later discoveries will no doubt modify much present knowledge along these lines if not entirely change it. War needs will make many changes in ways of living and in uses of materials.

Objectives need to be thought through further, to pupil behavior, lest they remain at best only partially realized. Lack of achievement may be due, it is true, to setting goals impossible to realize under the best of circumstances, or to aiming for too much in relation to the time allowed and the background of the students. Setting up specific pupil behavior which would mark success in reaching the goals may result in modification of the aims proposed. This should not mean a specific list of actions to be realized by everyone, but rather a list of sufficient number and range to enable the teacher and pupils to judge changes in behavior and to decide how successfully learning is taking place. The general behavior pattern, "feels herself a part of the home," if realized, will result in a variety of responses by different girls. It will be shown in projects of home improvement; planning ahead as to what can be done in improving the house in a long-time program; using personal money to buy small accessories for the home; doing more work at home; inviting friends to come home instead of spending as much time away as possible.

The ability to be well groomed should manifest itself in more desirable practices, when needed—in caring for the hair, skin, and nails, and in general personal cleanliness—but it may also result in fixing over a closet at home so that clothes may be better cared for, in making additional undergarments in order that more changes are available, or in wearing cotton hose so that there will be fewer runs. No one girl will do all these things or perhaps any one set up. However, thinking from objectives and basic learnings to pupil action should help a teacher line up more carefully the

teaching procedures to be used. It will also tend to keep constantly before both teacher and students the fact that successful teaching always results in pupil learning, and that learning has only one way of showing itself, and that is in changed behavior.

In planning the unit, techniques for teaching need to be thought through. Field trips, class discussions, reports, manipulative activities and group or individual study of problems all offer possibilities. The activities decided upon should be those which seem most likely, everything being considered, to secure the results desired. Among factors influencing selection will be the girls' interests, teaching materials available, activities used in other units, and time allotment. Not all students need to use the same medium of learning even in securing common basic learnings, and each unit of experience should offer, in addition, the opportunity to follow to some degree special needs and interests. The tailored dress made at school, a clothing budget, and family suppers prepared in the foods laboratory are not important as results in themselves. If they were, it would be cheaper to buy some ready-made dresses or to hire a cook to prepare a series of suppers while the students did something else. The results, however, have value when they represent increased ability to diagnose one's own learning needs and to make progress in meeting them—greater mastery of the sewing machine and skill in using patterns, ability to reconcile personal demands and a fair share of the family finances in making a satisfying clothing budget.

A particular activity cannot be thought of as always carrying certain learning. One teacher may use children's clothing entirely as review so far as sewing operations are concerned, having as special outcomes independent planning, speed in working, a study of change in style from dressing children as little men and women to individuality in dress. Another may use the making of boys' suits to teach tailoring-construction processes; little girls' dresses of dainty voiles, dimities, and lawns, to teach working with fine cottons in inexpensive lengths of material. Frequently the whole teaching unit is set up as a project or problem. Making a school dress may be either, but the basic learning of the unit usually calls for more than the making of a dress for its realization; there is borderline related material which should be brought out at the

same time, and yet which is not needed to complete the project or to solve the problem. If separate problems are set up to include these auxiliary values, they involve much unnecessary repetition as well as take a good deal more teaching time.

Illustrative material has a place in good teaching. Thinking ahead in this area, when planning a learning unit, allows time for securing or making it. Reference books and bulletins on hand may need to be gone over and some new readings collected. Special talks and field trips may contribute to the value of the learning desired. Arrangements will have to be made for these activities. Materials to be bought by the students should be planned with them before needed. Planning in advance for teaching materials that are to be used avoids delay when the time comes and prevents confusion or hurried change in plans. It also more nearly insures that teaching will be done under the best possible conditions for that particular situation.

The last important essential in planning a learning unit is to decide on the ways of testing the learning, the procedures by which the teacher and the pupils can satisfy themselves as to what *they can count on.* Some of these means of testing learning will be observation, talks with girls, their friends, and members of the family. Other testing will be formal, of both the objective and essay type. Sometimes the way of going about the next job is the best test: muffins have been made and drop cookes are assigned. What do the girls have from previous experience to work on? Four girls have prepared supper, and one girl is to get the next one alone. Her learning while working with the group is easily tested in such a situation. Planning testing for a unit must consider both the tests needed to show the progress being made during the unit and those needed to measure learnings at the end of the period.

Many suggestions have been made for planning the day's work. There is still a strong tendency to work out a common form to be used in all situations. It hardly seems possible and it certainly is not desirable to think of the day's work in home economics as a unit of learning experience. The learning unit as set up here seems to be the smallest time division which should be used for planning. With this before her, the teacher will need to think through the part of the larger plan to be accomplished in a single

teaching period. She will need to organize her thinking into some kind of order for that particular day, but it will not be the same order for each day. Most teachers find notes necessary to remind them of the learning to be emphasized at that time, the place where today's work meets yesterday's, the progress to be made, the means to be used, the ways of measuring accomplishment, the next thing to be done.

Planning for the learning unit should be flexible enough to permit modification as new needs arise or new points of view are brought out. Under no conditions should the teacher think of the unit planned as something which *must be* carried out. Thoughtful planning in advance should, however, place the teacher in a strategic position for evaluating leads which come from the class as the work progresses. It also gives direction to each day's work, makes wise use of pupil time, and prevents haphazard, spur-of-the-moment teaching. The inexperienced teacher should have little difficulty, in fact less than with the usual daily lesson plan, in thinking through the entire learning unit and then selecting each day's work from the larger unit, evaluating the daily accomplishments in terms of the large plan before deciding upon the activities for the following day. The work for a single day should be seen simply as a time division made necessary by the administration of formal education and should have its activities directed toward an understanding and realization of the basic learnings around which the learning unit is organized.

A Learning Unit in Its Broader Outlines

This discussion of a specific learning unit is for purposes of greater clarity, not to provide a pattern, and will be limited to some of the major points which should be given consideration. In taking up with students what they wish to learn in home economics, any group is likely to raise questions or make statements in regard to good grooming, becomingness of dress, making clothes that look smart, whether it pays to sew, caring for knit garments, buying shoes and other articles of clothing. Many other points will be raised about clothes along with questions about nutrition and health, personality development, family relationships, child development, and other phases of home economics. Most teachers

will want to add other points to those brought out by the students. These various statements may be made into a list to be checked by individual students as to the extent of their needs and the degree of their interest, or the teacher may think she knows these things well enough from class discussion to proceed with the planning. Failure to mark high as a need or to express a good deal of interest does not necessarily mean that the teacher will not include a particular learning in the program. When the teacher's ideas of values to be stressed in teaching differ from those of a large number of the students, her first responsibility is to weigh her own opinions to see if they are sound. If she can support them adequately, she then has the obligation to arouse an interest in and/or a feeling of need for that particular learning.

The teacher must assume major responsibility for organizing the various concerns of students into learning units. She must also exercise judgment concerning when they are to be taken up. One such unit may well be "Planning a wardrobe that satisfies." The major learning outcome of such a unit could be and probably should be achieving a realistic, personal philosophy of clothing, interpreted into a scheme of planning for, choosing, purchasing, making, and caring for one's wardrobe. Success in achievement will be measured by such behavior outcomes as increased satisfaction with one's clothes; more confidence in meeting different situations—wearing the right thing to school, picnics, parties, and church; weighs values in regard to spending money for clothes, time on personal grooming and care of clothes. Behavior outcomes that mean most will be different, of necessity, for different students. One girl may need to spend less money, another more; one less time, another more. Some students may care more about clothes than they have ever admitted. Others may feel mistreated or disgruntled because their parents cannot provide them with more or better clothes. Situations like these must be considered in the planning.

To attain the larger goal involves studying and doing a great many different things—solving a variety of problems, carrying out different projects, learning subject matter, and finally organizing learning into generalizations and principles to be used in meeting other situations. One of the first and most important things a

student must realize is that the final answers must be her own, that no two students will arrive at identical answers or will need to do identical things, and that the teacher has no preconceived answers to the problem. There will still be, however, many common experiences that will be helpful to all in achieving their individual answers. It will be worth while to all students to know the values others put on clothes and how they solve their problems. They should know that basic knowledge and practices about becomingness, buying and caring for clothes, and grooming is the same for all. In some schools and for some students, clothing construction will be especially important.

In planning possible learning experiences the teacher should ask herself what problems should be solved, what projects carried out, what large topics studied? The problems to be solved may include answering such questions as: What clothes does a high-school girl living in this community need? How can a long-time color plan for a wardrobe be made and carried out? What are the best ways of caring for knit garments? The solution to a problem such as the last one may mean little unless it is tried out by the actual cleaning of sweaters, knit undergarments, and other knit articles. Separate activities may also be set up as projects: making a dress; improving clothing storage at home; better ways of caring for skin, hair, and nails. A good deal of subject matter will be needed in such a learning unit. Students may be interested in studying such topics as color harmonies, line and pattern in dress, wearing qualities of fabrics. Naturally, the basic purpose in studying such topics will be to acquire the learning needed to solve the large problem of the unit. This knowledge, however, will be limited in value unless students see it applied to many different situations and finally organized so that they understand the underlying principles and can make other uses of it.

Teaching material of many kinds is available for use in this kind of a learning unit. The wardrobes of both teacher and students offer a rich source of illustrative material. Some girls may be willing to formulate their tentative philosophies to be discussed by the class and to have their wardrobes evaluated in the light of these philosophies. In selecting a girl for such an activity, the teacher must guard against selecting one who stands above the

rest in the quantity and quality of her clothing or one who can solve her problems once she is aware of them by going to the store and buying more clothes. Almost any girl will be willing to bring some garments to school—the dress that has been especially satisfying, a slip that did not wear well. Many stores will lend garments for exhibit purposes or the teacher may prefer to take students to a store. Some stores have staff members who can make a good talk and who are glad to do it either at the school or at the store. The department should have books, bulletins, and fashion magazines that will be helpful. All schools should have a goodly collection of fabrics of different textiles, colors, patterns, and weaves.

As the teacher plans the learning unit, she should think of ways by which the learning may be evaluated by her and the students' working together or separately. Some type of pretest is important so that she may know where group learning should begin and what the range of differences is within the group, and so that individual students may know where their learning should begin. If this is not a first unit in a home economics class, the teacher will have had opportunities to observe and talk with students informally. Through these means she will have secured a helpful background of material. The real measure of learning will be what students do about their clothes, both now and later; the adequacy with which they meet problems which arise later; their confidence in their ability to solve these problems; the extent to which their feelings about their own clothes move in the direction of satisfaction with the solutions they are working out.

The teacher may be able to form judgments on some of these points as she observes the students' behavior both in and outside the classroom. The students will be the best judge of their own growth in such a learning unit, and their help should be enlisted in evaluating it. Their interest in solving other clothing problems and the intelligence and eagerness with which they attack them will be evidence of the success and extent of the learning in this unit. Special tests may be set up to measure certain aspects of growth. Tests of a practical nature may include the passing of judgment on actual articles of clothing, on a complete costume, or on a wardrobe, from the standpoint of its suitability for a

particular girl or girls of known economic and social status. Questions may bear on relative worth of different articles, harmony in a costume, suitability for different occasions. New-type paper-and-pencil tests may also be set up bearing on such things as difficulties in clothing economics, art applied to clothing, wearing qualities, and care.

The final plans for a learning unit should represent the teacher's best judgment about what the students need to learn, how it can best be learned, and how growth and achievement is to be measured. She should expect to rethink her plans with the students as the unit is developed. Such a unit should be thoughtfully planned, more thoughtfully planned than if it were to be carried out without change in the classroom. Only in this way will she be prepared to consider conscientiously the suggestions students make for changes in relation to the values which seem most important to her and which may at times not be readily observable to students. The form in which this planning is recorded should be whatever is best suited to a particular unit and most useful for that teacher, both in carrying out the large unit and in day-by-day teaching.

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CHAPTER XV

TECHNIQUES OF TEACHING

The attaining of the goals of a learning unit depends upon the way the students and the teacher use the time allotted to home economics. Class and small group discussions, laboratory work, demonstrations, reports, study periods, and field trips represent mediums through which the learning of a unit may be realized. Teachers can learn to guide a good class discussion, to direct laboratory work which results in the maximum of learning, and to use demonstrations and class reports to further economical and effective learning. Whatever means seem likely to be most effective in realizing the basic purposes of the learning unit should be used.

The Class Discussion

A discussion means that there is difference of opinion, temporarily at least, concerning a situation. Attention focuses on bringing these points of view into the open in order to solve a problem, to decide on the best procedures to follow, to clear up a difficulty. Past experiences and known facts are brought to bear on the question. New data and new experiences are sought as needed. The probable results of different courses of action are discussed and evaluated. A common answer may or may not be desired; that depends upon the type of problem. However, for a discussion to be successful, each individual must reach an answer for himself. In discussing a high-school girl's wardrobe, a class may reach common agreement concerning the points to think about in planning a wardrobe, and each girl then may plan her own wardrobe as a final step. Common agreement is essential when group action is desired: how shall the family spend its vacation; how shall the members of the class entertain their mothers? Discussion frequently serves the purpose of calling at-

tention to what the individual needs to know in order to settle a question. The group may have certain facts, but others may be needed before an answer can be secured. A discussion may take five minutes in the midst of laboratory work or a demonstration, or an entire class period. Its main value lies in bringing out all points of view, in finding out what new learning is needed to solve a problem, in making decisions on merit rather than on bias or insufficient data.

Class discussions may be general or specific, depending upon the type of result desired and the maturity and experience of the group. A specific case has value when the desire is to have a group think together, limiting the discussion for the time being to the situation set up. The question, Is it better to buy or rent? may be presented as a problem facing an actual family. Such a discussion, to be of greatest value, however, needs to go beyond the particular situation to general considerations in regard to buying and renting. Basic principles should be worked out and their implications seen in a number of different situations.

A mature, experienced group, on the other hand, may begin such a discussion by presenting general principles. Each point given by a student will be based on concrete situations she is thinking about, and she should be asked now and then to support her statement by giving illustrations. When a class accepts a general statement without question, the teacher should take the position that this means agreement and should feel free to ask any girl to illustrate the point made. In such a general discussion, the experiences of the whole group will be brought to bear on the large problem, and the basic principles accepted may be the result of a wider range of experience and more depth of thinking than that required to reach a satisfactory answer to a specific situation. Using these general principles, the teacher may in the end want each girl to arrive at an answer for a specific case.

Keeping to the point at issue is a frequent difficulty. A group should reach the place where it is able to evaluate without much help the bearing of the data being presented on the main question. To get pupils to the point of considering critically all the evidence presented may require a good deal of guidance at first. The teacher may need to ask questions, challenge statements

made, call group attention to the original problem under consideration. She may need to sum up progress to show what has been done and what remains to be done. The students should, however, finally do this for themselves. The leader will always have the responsibility of seeing that all members participate. The leader is also responsible for seeing that all sides are brought out and that the data considered are sufficient and of the kind needed for reaching a valid conclusion. Class discussions usually move along better if the group comes close together so that the members talk to one another and not to the teacher and there is no need for repetition because some one did not hear.

A discussion may have to be temporarily discontinued in order to get more information, to try out procedures suggested, or to experiment to secure more data. The group should know before breaking up how far the discussion has gone, what is needed to continue, who is going to get the additional information, and when the discussion is to be continued. Raising questions the day preceding the serious discussion of a problem has decided value in starting the group thinking.[1] A teacher must watch carefully her own part in a discussion to see that she gives help when needed without dominating the situation and that pupils do not wait for her point of view before taking a position. She should throw out her ideas to be criticized as severely as those of anyone else, sometimes taking a position contrary to what she believes in order to keep a discussion from becoming one-sided. In so far as possible, pupils should develop the ability to enter into a discussion objectively, being more anxious to have their own conclusions challenged than those of anyone else because they are seeking the best answer possible under present conditions and are not trying to prove themselves right.

An answer based on facts naturally stops itself once the facts are known. When the answer is based on opinion, it is not so easy to know when enough data have been secured to warrant the accepting of a conclusion. A wide range of knowledge, much experience in evaluating situations, and sound thinking seem to be the teacher's only safeguards. The discussion should have a final summing up of some kind, pertinent facts and experiences being

[1] See p. 157.

reemphasized, the point at issue and the most important evidence bearing on a situation being brought out in bold relief. Attention should also be focused briefly on unanswered questions which have arisen and which point to the need for other discussions.

A third-year home economics-class period ended with the question as to whether it was better to buy or to rent. A few points were made. The whole class seemed interested, and it was agreed to talk it over the next day and see if a decision could be reached. Brief consideration was given to sources of information, and the class was dismissed. The girls came in the next day with minds made up. It was a home-owning section, and fourteen of the class were for buying while three favored renting. Supporting reasons were given, some to the point and others not. About fifteen minutes of a ninety-minute period were given to this rambling talk. The teacher then suggested that they see where they were, what points had been made for buying and what for renting. She moved to a place at one of the tables. Two girls went to the board and the points were lined up under the two large heads. The girls in the main still tried to support the conclusion that each had already reached. Beyond asking girls to explain their meaning when points seemed a little obscure or helping to reword a statement when a girl showed that she meant something different from what she was actually saying, the teacher said little.

Individual girls began to defend the position taken by giving concrete proof. One said, "Mr. Jones, who taught here, bought a house because his wife wanted it. He only stayed two years and look at it now." Another said, "My brother has lived in three towns since he was married, each move a promotion. He can't buy a house." A third, "My cousin and her husband came home when he lost his job and couldn't get another. Where would they have been if her parents hadn't owned a home?" After each example was given, the teacher would ask some one who was taking the opposite position what she thought in regard to this particular case. After a little while one of the group said, "I think buying or renting depends—" and then the entire class joined together to find out the factors which would influence a family's decision to buy or rent.

One girl, toward the end of the discussion, said, "I'd like to think

that the family I have would some day own its own home, but what bothers me is how people ever get money enough together to buy one." Again the group had several suggestions to make as to how it was done. The teacher called the attention of the girls to the large number of families who did own their homes, some entirely paid for long ago, others being paid for now, adding that it should not be difficult to find out how some people had answered that question. Some one asked about mortgages, and building and loan plans, and the different ways in which the government was helping people to buy homes. The teacher said that she would secure information about the legal aspects and copies of the necessary papers if they would get all the information possible from people who had bought or were buying homes.

The Panel Discussion

The panel discussion has become popular during recent years both for general discussion meetings and as a classroom procedure. If thoughtfully planned and carried out, it may prove a very worthwhile way of securing different points of view on matters more or less controversial as well as an excellent educational experience for those participating. Sometimes, however, it is either a series of short talks by the panel members or rambling talking by people who have not given careful thought to the topic to be discussed or to their share in the discussion. A panel discussion is actually a small group discussion carried on before a larger group, the members of the larger group having the opportunity later to ask questions of the panel or other participants and to express their own views on the topic.

The panel group consists of a leader or chairman and a small group of participants. In most cases this group should be kept small. In a school group, it should rarely consist of more than five or six members including the chairman. The members should represent different points of view. The best discussions grow naturally out of classwork. If the topic is of vital concern to the large group, many students will want to share in it. If the panel is too large, they cannot do this and the purpose of the panel will be partially defeated. In a fifty-minute period, thirty minutes for

the panel group and twenty minutes for the audience is usually a good division of time. The panel members should be seated so that they can look at each other without turning their faces entirely away from the audience. They should be on a platform twelve to fifteen inches above the class if the floor is level. The audience should be seated so that they can see each other as well as the panel, in a semicircle if in a regular classroom. While a small class has certain advantages over a large one in the proportion of non-panel members who can participate, panel discussions have been carried on most successfully in classes of seventy-five to ninety when so arranged that all can see and hear each other without effort, and the topic is one which interests them.

It is usually advisable for the panel to have one or two meetings in advance of the class meeting. At these meetings, the members will discuss the issues involved, setting up a framework for the discussion and discarding those points not closely related to the topic. They may also plan how the discussion will be opened. They will not, however, plan as a group the things that each will say, although presumably each member will give some time to thinking about his share in it. Speeches, even short ones, are usually ruled out in class panel discussions. Occasionally, however, the different members are allowed to state their position in a sentence or two.

The chairman is the key person in a good panel discussion, but he cannot do all that needs to be done. He usually states the topic to be discussed and defines its limits as set by the group. He may introduce the members if the class is large and there is a possibility that not all will be acquainted. At this time he may refer to the special point of view that the different members are expected to represent. "John's father owns a grocery store and John has some special ideas as to how the consumer can buy to better advantage." "Mary does most of the food buying for her family and her experiences should be helpful to us."

The chairman may call on a particular person to open the discussion. When this is done, the person usually knows it in advance. The chairman's responsibilities during the discussion are several. He must try to get each person to contribute and at the place where the contribution will be most effective. He may even wish to play one person against another for effectiveness. He must keep

the discussion moving along, and on the topic. He must keep one or two from doing all the talking. Points should be summed up from time to time. This is especially important before turning the discussion over to the audience and should also be done at the end of the period. In summarizing, the leader should call attention to those points on which there seems to be general agreement and those on which there is greatest disagreement.

Two unusually good panel discussions in a class of seventy-five, both boys and girls, dealt with the topics: What do boys like best in girls? in boys?; What do girls like best in boys? in girls? The first panel was made up of three boys and two girls with a boy as chairman; the second, of three girls and two boys with a girl as chairman. All the students on both panels volunteered. The part played by the girls in the first discussion and the boys in the second varied somewhat from the usual panel in that these members were there chiefly to ask questions of the other members and to call attention to experiences which seemed to contradict what the others were saying or concerning which they wanted an opinion. Both panels placed emphasis on differences between people that count and do not count in liking them; differences between the boy or girl whom one likes as the life of the party and the one with whom to go steady; differences between qualities that seem more important in a girl friend than a boy friend, and the reverse. The girls asked the boys questions about going "Dutch" and about girls' telephoning boys. Most of the boys preferred and thought other boys preferred to pay when they took a girl out, but they also said that they appreciated the girl who could have a good time on little money and who did her share in other ways. They were less in agreement about the telephoning. These discussions were planned to summarize a unit, but the students were not willing to stop there. They asked for one more lesson to compare the points made in the two discussions. They said they wanted to know if the qualities one really liked in boys were different from those in girls and if all the boys and girls agreed on certain points, and, if they did, how should knowing these things influence one's behavior.

A panel discussion may be used to introduce a unit or as a summary or it may be used in discussing a topic which is a part

of a larger unit. Thoughtfully planned and carried out, it is an educational procedure of unusual merit. It offers an opportunity for several students to participate on the panel and for still more from the audience. It takes the teacher out of the position of leadership and usually makes for greater freedom in discussion. The weaknesses grow out of selecting a topic of little interest and the failure of both panel members and teacher to plan adequately for it.

The Recitation

Recitation, as used here, is limited in meaning to the reciting or repeating of knowledge, facts learned, or experiences had. The recitation is in bad repute, but it still seems to have a purpose. This is somewhat different and certainly less important than in the old type of teaching in which most of the class time was given over to reciting what had been memorized outside of class. Pupils should be brought to see a need for learning certain definite things and for learning them correctly. The more of that type of learning which is available *in usable form*, the more rapidly may things of greater importance be accomplished. It is the half-learned things that clutter up one's thinking. Is it hot water or cold? Does the food have an alkaline or acid reaction? It is not intended to advocate rote memorization as a means of teaching, but rather reciting as one means of testing certain kinds of learning, the learning to have been attained under the best psychological conditions known by the teacher.

Successful personal living and homemaking make use of a great deal of information—facts, knowledge, whatever it may be called—and, while much of it may be learned through use in actual situations, it may be tested partially at least by the recitation method. A class has been working with foodstuffs in planning balanced meals and the teacher uses a short recitation period to have the group name foods rich in protein, iron, vitamin A. This may come nearer the actual home situation than checking a list in a written test. Meals are to be planned, and the housewife considers possible starches, proteins, regulatory foods in making out her menus. Other factors enter in, but certainly she must

"call to mind" what she does know and must be able to judge the foods properly according to value.

Learning foundation recipes—proportions for sauces, flour mixtures, beverages—saves time and contributes to success in cookery. The average person will guess at amounts when preparing common dishes if she hasn't really learned them. She knows about what to use and goes ahead. The teacher cannot have the girls make every one of these basic recipes, and so she may test some of the learning by the recitation method. Need for similar knowledge is to be found in every aspect of home economics: ways of removing stains, ways of cleaning, remedies for first aid. Such knowledge should be taught by the best learning procedures, through understanding, use in many situations, building up relationships, recognizing underlying principles. They may be tested in part at least by the recitation method, and this procedure should be used in a teaching period, for five or twenty minutes, when such testing will accomplish the results desired in less time than some other procedure.

The Special Talk

A special talk is frequently made a feature of the teaching. The village doctor is called in to talk on the prevention of colds or the spread of an epidemic; a county health nurse, to tell of health conditions in the county; a lawyer, to discuss laws affecting the family. The teacher talks of her trip through a hosiery mill or a china factory. One of the class tells of a visit to a maple sugar camp. A supervisor is asked to inform them of the work being done in other schools.

Except in unusual circumstances, a talk should fit into both the general teaching plan and the work going on at the time. It may be used to introduce a new aspect of work, to arouse interest; it may teach a particular part, provide the means of arriving at an answer; it may be the climax, sum up a special teaching situation. The speaker may be asked to present facts: a county health doctor, to furnish data on unsanitary conditions common to many homes. He may be asked to apply facts to a local situation: the agricultural teacher, to give information on other vegetables which may be

grown in that section or on ways of extending the garden season. He may direct the thinking of a group in solving a problem: the director of civilian defense, to discuss ways in which the home economics classes may best assist in community defense work.

In each case the speaker should know something of the instruction being given and how his special contribution is to fit into the larger objectives of the work. He may be given a brief summary of what has been done or two or three questions the class would like answered. If the talk is to introduce new work, he should know what plans the teacher has for work to follow. The teacher, on the other hand, should have a rather good notion of what a speaker has to contribute before he is asked. This does not mean that she will censor the talk or ask some one to speak just to put over her own ideas. However, a lawyer who talks in profound legal terms and sees no social implications in the application of the law will not only bore a group but contribute little of value. A woman who has traveled much and seen little has no real offering to make just because she has been in foreign places. A woman who has scarcely been out of her home community, however, may know a lot about raising flowers or chickens or children, which it is decidedly worth while for the class to know.

In most instances students should be prepared for a special talk. They should have reached a dilemma in their work, feel the need for information they do not have and cannot easily secure themselves. The special talk should be the answer to this need. In some cases they may prepare the questions which the speaker will answer. A lawyer may be told in advance by a class which is studying the family that the group would like to know the state laws regarding marriage, divorce, rights of children in broken homes, protection afforded illegitimate children, and the ways in which other states or countries are meeting similar situations more effectively. If a talk really fits into the work being done, the follow-up comes naturally, other applications are made, misunderstandings are cleared up, the information received is put to work in solving the problem for which it was needed—planning a longer garden season or a wider range of vegetables, building up resistance to colds, preventing the spread of influenza, mapping out a program to help meet war needs.

The Special Report

Under some conditions the special report should do the same thing that the special talk does: answer questions raised in class, give information related to work the class is doing or going to do. Sometimes the class needs information which there is no time or opportunity for all to get at the moment. A group is studying canning, and one girl reports on oven-canning, using a bulletin in the files as the basis for her report. All the class will read this material later because they are going to try out the process. Another group is studying vitamins. An article has just appeared on vitamin B complex, and one girl is asked to see if it contains any new material. Unless it does, there will be no special reason for the whole class to read it now or later.

If no question has been raised for the report to answer, the person giving it may well raise questions which she sets out to answer. A report, no matter how brief, should be well organized, represent clarity of thinking, have meaning to the speaker, and in turn have meaning to the audience. The person giving the report should be able within the scope of the report to answer questions which may be asked by the group. Rarely, if ever, should a report be a résumé of an article, and never should it be given by glancing down at the original article read, picking up a thought here and there as the speaker goes along. If quotations are desired to prove or elaborate on points being made, they should be read as quotations in a connected presentation. The student making a report should feel that she is giving something the group wants and needs to learn. It may represent working material needed by all: tests for rayon in so-called silk fabrics; information which widens their horizon: a special study of fabrics made from grasses and leaves. It may represent reading: the way in which Indians dye their baskets and rugs; talking with some one: information about canned and packaged goods secured from the grocer.

Committee Work

Group work with a committee organization is frequently desirable. Committees may serve two purposes. Sometimes an entire

class is divided into committees to carry through a large activity—to plan and carry out a banquet for the football boys. In such an undertaking many different committees will be needed. Sometimes a committee is set up to do a special piece of work for the entire class—to discuss with the principal the ways of cooperating in a community housing project. Definite recognition of the responsibility of a committee is important, whether it is to work out the solution—plan a menu or the decorations for a father-mother dinner or an assembly program; or to present several plans to the larger group for final decision—work out possibilities for an entertainment, a play night for all the family, a program at which the parents will be the audience. Committees should be used only when they are a natural outgrowth of the work going on.

A committee needs to set up an organization, make a plan of work, decide upon a division of labor, and set a time for group meetings and for completing the job. The members should recognize that the report presented or piece of work done should represent group opinion, that questions should be settled on merit and not by personal preference or by the loudest talking or by the most persistent member. Teacher guidance will be needed to see that all work according to the rules of the game and that every aspect of the problem is considered. After this is done, the teacher should accept the results of committee work just as the pupils are expected to accept it. If this is not to be done, the limitations as to the scope of the committee's job should be set up before work begins. Teacher-controlled committee work, reported as committee work, is usually recognized for what it is and does not challenge the best thinking of a group.

Directed Study

Directed study may refer to either one of two types of individual work. One is the individualized study program in which the whole plan of work is largely individual. Job sheets may be worked out or contracts entered into. The girl, guided by her own interest and need, works at her own speed. Once the problem is set up, teacher guidance centers largely around pupil-recognized need for help. The other is the study under guidance which accom-

panies small group or class work. A small group may be planning meals and need to check on nutritive qualities of certain foods, ways of cooking meats, how to serve a buffet supper. Such needs arise again and again as work goes on. An entire class may need to study in connection with an activity going on. They are making dresses and need to find out how to put in sleeves, put on a collar. They are going to launder sweaters and want to know the best way to do it. They are getting up a party for the first grade children and want to find out what food to serve them and what games to have them play.

In any type of directed study, the girl needs to have a definite purpose in mind, know what she is going after and why she wants it. She should have a plan of work, know sources of help, and have some means of checking her progress. Books and bulletins, current magazines, and articles from old magazines should be readily accessible.[2] Students should know how to use such helps. Study should be an intrinsic part of a large learning unit. In their study of family needs in housing, students ran across the statement that each home should provide a place for the special work, hobbies, and recreational interests of all the members. Following a class discussion, each girl listed the various interests of her family. These were divided into daytime and evening needs. The evening list included such points as a place for five-year-old Jane to play paper dolls, a place for Jim and Mary to study and write near enough for mother to give help now and then, a quiet place for John and Clara to work, good light and comfortable chairs for dad to read and mother to sew. Each girl then checked at home to see how well these different needs were being met. They talked with members of the family and with other people, did further study in an effort to find better ways of meeting these needs.

Teacher guidance should be available when and as needed. Some girls will need more than others, and not all will need the same kind. The teacher must be able to come in at the right moment, ask the question which brings to light an unrecognized problem, give the suggestion which clears up the difficulty, point to sources of help. Study which shows progress in realizing the

[2] See pp. 313-314.

goals of education is as legitimate use of class time as any other learning procedure. It is directed study, however, whenever a teacher gets a group ready to study, whether the study is done in class time or not.

One of the most abused practices in connection with directed study in home economics is the laboratory situation in which facilities are such that only a part of a class may do laboratory work. Those who are studying may be concerned with material not entirely unrelated to the laboratory activities they have carried out or will carry out later. All too rarely, however, is the large learning experience seen as a whole and are *both study and laboratory work* recognized as means for achieving its large purposes. Not until this is done, will study in such situations compete successfully with laboratory work in securing the wholehearted attention as well as the best efforts of students. A second practice to be condemned is the individualized study program in which note taking from books is substituted for legitimate problem solving in which books provide one source of data.

The Demonstration

The demonstration may be used for different purposes. It may be used to arouse interest. The cooking in a community shows little variety and standards are poor. The teacher demonstrates the preparation of a molded salad, makes a crisp pastry shell, and talks about other things needed to make a good dinner. The next day potatoes are baked, okra steamed, cocoanut cream filling and baking powder biscuits made, and a meal is served. The whole purpose has been to interest the girls in the good cooking of everyday foods and the preparation of common dishes. The demonstration may set a standard of taste in cookery. The girls do not know what good coffee or a well-seasoned sauce tastes like. The demonstration may be used to clarify a point, to explain by doing when words are inadequate: kneading, in making yeast bread; folding in egg whites, in soufflé; purl, in buttonhole. In such cases the demonstration both gives meaning to an unfamiliar term and teaches how to carry out a technique. This demonstration or showing for teaching purposes is very important. Sometimes a

teacher does, rather than teaches, and the pupil at the end of the demonstration is just where she was in the beginning so far as learning is concerned. A girl is trying to cut a chicken at the thigh joint, to mix dyes to match the trimming of a dress, and the teacher steps in and does it. The teacher thinks that she is teaching, but the opportunity for the girl to do it may now be so far removed that any learning acquired by seeing the teacher do it will be forgotten before it can be used.

Sometimes a demonstration is given because the learning is easy and demonstrating the procedure saves time. The girls get a notion of the process and with the directions are able to go ahead when the occasion arises for their doing it. No special techniques are involved and more ground can be covered. This type of demonstration is valuable in foods work after basic procedures have been mastered. Such demonstrations may be carried out by members of the class and may represent considerable time spent at home in perfecting the preparation of a chosen dish.

The demonstration is sometimes necessary because materials are expensive and supplies cannot be furnished at school for everyone to carry out the process. A small piece of meat cannot be used to teach roasting, and large cuts for all the girls would cost too much. The demonstration may be used for the purpose of setting a standard either in technique or in the finished product. The class has made yeast breads and can handle doughs very well. The teacher demonstrates a half dozen fancy breads in a single period, and the girls try them out at home. The cream pies of the community seem to run to a gummy mixture in the lower half of the filling. It is not particularly difficult to make a smooth mixture throughout, but the teacher hesitates to criticize the neighborhood standards. A demonstration will do the work and hurt no one's feelings. Some painting is to be done, furniture refinished. The teacher takes off some varnish, sandpapers the surface, puts on the stain, and rubs it in. The techniques might have been learned by telling, but the idea that they could make their work look like that of a professional could not have been gotten over to the girls in that way.

The demonstration may be done by the teacher, a member of the class, or an outside person. A nurse may be called in to teach

first aid, a woman of the community to make butter, a representative of a sewing-machine company to use the sewing attachments. The person demonstrating should be aware of the purpose of the demonstration and be proficient in carrying it out. Her ability to prepare tender pastry, to make a straight buttonhole, to stain wood smoothly, or to dye cloth evenly should be unquestioned. The teacher's preparation for the demonstration is an important step. Knowing how to do it herself, she must think through the best way to get the desired learning across. A serious danger in using demonstrations, especially in food preparation, is in the pupils' imitating the process without understanding what is being done or seeing the application of the principles to other situations. Initiative and not imitation is desired, and the teacher should check pupil learning to assure herself that the desired results have been secured.

Everything needed for a demonstration should be ready in advance, and it should be given in such a way that the entire group can see what is being done. A verbal explanation, calling attention to what is being done or explaining a technique, helps in learning. The talking should be clearly connected with the work at hand, not just talking to be entertaining. The teacher may ask questions of the group to test their powers of observation, ability to see relationships: How does the kneading of yeast bread differ from the handling of pastry, biscuit dough? Where is cutting true bias used other than in making facings? Such informality on the part of the teacher should cause the students to feel free to ask questions, and they should be encouraged to do so. The demonstration should end with a summarization of the whole process, special points to watch for, uses to be made of the process. After a demonstration of techniques, the pupils should be given the opportunity to use them at once with the teacher clearing up any difficulties which may arise.

The demonstrator should use the same materials and follow the procedure to be used by the students. If the teacher wants the pupil to test the oven with heavy paper or a thermometer, she should do so also. If a buttonhole is to be made, using certain steps, then the completed buttonhole given the pupils should show these same steps. If the teacher wants to give them a second

buttonhole with some steps omitted, explaining that with practice and on certain kinds of material the overcasting may be omitted, that is another matter. The teacher who uses paper to cut bias or to show how French seams are made will find she hasn't gone very far in teaching these processes when cloth is to be the medium the students use. A demonstration may extend over a considerable period: feeding rats, using strong soaps to show fading in laundering, the effect of the sun on colored cottons, different methods in the preservation of food.

If the demonstration is to fit into the needs of the group, it may be best to give it to a few at a time. This is especially true with sewing processes since the whole class will not be ready to put on collars, set in sleeves, or make bound buttonholes at the same time. Many things can be learned alone that are often demonstrated. A French seam, worked out by steps with a simple statement calling attention to the special points to keep in mind at each step, may be a more effective means of getting good seams than a demonstration by the teacher. A demonstration should be used only when it seems in that particular situation to be the most effective and economical way of teaching the learning desired.

Laboratory Work

Laboratory work may serve a variety of ends. Acquiring motor techniques is one reason for allowing school time for cookery processes, meal preparation, refinishing furniture, cleaning a floor. Much of living centers around doing physical things, and the more this doing is intelligently guided and controlled, the more satisfactory it is. The work may not be carried to the skill level at school, but the pupil learns the techniques and gets the feel of an operation to be perfected later. Finding out what will happen, what procedure is best, or how things will look is a second purpose of laboratory work: the class experiments with a low-protein diet on young rats; a girl making a basket-weave dress tries out several seams on samples of the material; a group arranges the furniture of a room in different ways.

Arriving at general conclusions concerning characteristics or qualities, confirming through observation the conclusions read or

expressed by others, is another purpose: watching children to see how they behave in different situations, examining fibers, textile materials, food products to learn their characteristics; and observing people to find out their personality traits. Using materials as a means of interpreting ideas is a fourth purpose: designing a dress, working out the furnishings for a room, preparing and serving a meal, giving a party. Laboratory work may also be set up for testing purposes: to see how well a group can plan, prepare, and serve a meal from certain foods provided; to see how well a group uses good techniques and manages time in putting a laboratory in order for a party. Laboratory work is rarely set up to realize just one purpose. The same laboratory lesson may accomplish a variety of things with one value emphasized more at one time than another.

Organization for laboratory work will vary. The entire group may be working on the same thing, cutting and joining bias, working buttonholes, making pastry, omelet. Knowing the technique is important, and each girl needs to handle the material herself. It is individual work, given as group instruction, followed by giving each girl the help she needs to do the work successfully. Individual laboratory work may mean a number of processes going on at the same time. A class making dresses must dovetail the work to get tables for cutting, machines for stitching, and the mirror for fitting. Some system must be worked out. Girls may be paired off for cutting and fitting. Girls, alike in size and build or making garments using similar patterns, may work together in their first sewing. As they become more experienced, the pairing may be for differences, each girl learning more about planning, cutting, and fitting by working with a girl of a different type or one making an entirely different style of garment from her own.

Small groups may work together to accomplish a larger purpose. Getting a meal is the large job. The large activity must be seen as a whole and then divided into smaller activities. A group plan is needed with each girl's work fitting into the large plan. The small group, on the other hand, may be working together to do a single piece of work—refinish a chair or a table. Articles of furniture requiring different preparation and different finishes are brought

together. Girls in small groups work at each one, taking off the previous paint or varnish, rubbing it down, filling the cracks, and putting on the new finish. The work must be planned so that each girl gets a chance at each operation, each learns as much as possible, and the minimum of time is wasted.

In both the individualized curriculum[3] and the integrated homemaking program,[4] many different activities will be going on at the same time. Both types of programs demand certain changes in the general organization of laboratory work. In the individualized program, the individual needs of students must be adjusted to the laboratory facilities available. If only one laboratory is available it is very likely to be a general laboratory with no more than two or three unit kitchens and two or three sewing machines. Space and equipment for other activities will also be limited. The number of students who can do any particular thing, then, will be limited of necessity. In the integrated homemaking program, the activities of homemaking provide the starting place for the planning and those planned for a particular time are always those which can be carried out by a class with the facilities at hand. The most serious problem in both programs focuses around the time needed for supervising the work of students if they are to have the help they need when they need it. The opportunities for developing initiative and resourcefulness in this type of laboratory work, if well organized and carried out, far exceed the opportunities in the more formal set up. The opportunities for dawdling, wasting time, and prolonging a job are also greater. So far as detailed planning by and for the individual student and the small group is concerned, it is the same in these situations as in any other type of laboratory work.

Worth-while laboratory work has four definite steps: understanding the purpose—knowing both what work is to be done and why; making out a plan for achieving the purpose; carrying out the plan; evaluating the work done—seeing what has been done and how well it has been done. Frequently a fifth step should follow—going over leads which have arisen during this piece of work to see what suggestions there are for future study and if any of

[3] See pp. 262-263.
[4] See p. 264.

these should be followed up now. The work itself should always meet a recognized individual or group need for help.

Dawdling, wasting time, dragging a job out are undesirable habits sometimes formed in laboratory work. There are so many interesting, worth-while things to do that the students should be encouraged to move along as rapidly as is consistent with acquiring the new learnings in the job before them, not just getting the work done. The class should study the routine and work out plans for getting it cared for. "Rules of the game" should be set up under teacher guidance, tried out, revised, and tried again. Different types of lessons require different laboratory procedures. To sweep after each class just because there are plenty of girls to do it represents poor teaching. Every way of reducing labor, preventing the need for cleaning up, eliminating extra steps in getting the laboratory work done, should be tried out, and those consistent with group work and good standards should become a part of the regular classroom routine.

A laboratory activity may extend over several days. However, since the school organization sets a length to the daily period, certain special problems enter in. Timing becomes important. Not only must a certain amount of work be done, but also the work must be left at a good stopping place: sewing must be put away in shape to be picked up the next time with the minimum of pressing; a paint job must be carried to the place where there will be no streaking when the work begins again, brushes put to soak, paint fixed so it will not dry out; dishes must be washed and put in their places. Planning the use of a work period of any kind must take into consideration three types of activities: getting ready to work—the supplies ready for cookery work, sewing boxes out, paint open; working on the job—sewing on the apron, making the pie, painting the chair; putting things in order afterward—the dishes washed and put away, sewing folded and in the cabinet, brushes cleaned, chair where it can dry in safety.

A mature, experienced class may come in and pick up their work from the day before and settle down to work. Each girl may have what she wants to do so clearly in mind that no time is wasted. Most girls, however, need to have their attention focused on the work at hand. A few minutes to look at some of their work,

a few questions as to what was done the day before and what is to be done next, make for a good start. If an activity is to extend over several days—refinishing a chair, planning and preparing a meal including the learning of several new dishes, making a garment—a daily summary calling attention to the progress made that day and planning for the next period is desirable in addition to the summary and evaluation at the completion of the activity.

Failure from one cause or another to have supplies for cooking, inability of girls to get materials on time, forgetting pins, needles, thread, a shortening of the period unexpectedly bring special problems. The teacher needs to have extra sewing supplies available, to plan the sewing problem in plenty of time for the material to be secured, to have alternative plans and supplies on hand for certain staple cookery dishes when there is doubt about getting what she wants at a particular time.

Relief and emergency work present other difficulties. A family is burned out, a cyclone dips down, and the home economics department is called on to help renovate donated clothing, set up a feeding center. The work needs to be done immediately. The relief agencies have cloth for garments; food is available, but many families do not know how to prepare satisfying meals from these supplies. A class discussion before promising specific help usually results in more intelligent help, and the assistance offered is seen as a group responsibility instead of a teacher-imposed one. Recognizing that the home economics department is, after all, only one source of assistance and that it is primarily an educational agency may help put it in proper perspective to these special needs. Both students and teacher should realize that following meticulously curriculum plans made early in the year is not always the most important thing that they can do. On the other hand, except in a real emergency, they should take time to plan the best assistance which they can give at the same time that they are moving forward in achieving the large objectives previously set up for the work.

The product has its value in laboratory work. It should be good. That means, first of all, that a good product is possible of attainment with reasonable effort in this particular situation: the oven does bake well, the machine stitches evenly. Some factors which point to poor teaching and little learning, however, may enter

into the securing of a good product. The whole learning accompanying the activity is of much greater importance than any finished product. The burnt gingerbread, the yeast bread without salt under some circumstances may mean much more in real learning than the perfect sponge cake on which the teacher never turned her back. Taking fewer steps, using fewer dishes, reducing motions to a minimum, making fewer extra trips for materials, having the oven hot when needed, fitting one's work to that of the group, all show progress in learning and cannot be judged by seeing the finished product alone.

Field Trips

Field trips, like other activities, should fit into the general program for learning. Frequently they are largely informational, contributing directly to the knowledge in a field. They may do this and also contribute indirectly to an understanding or appreciation of how people live and work. A trip to a dairy may concern itself with how milk is produced, cared for, and finally delivered to the consumer. Accompanying this, however, may come a different feeling toward the dairyman, an appreciation of his early rising and his long working day, of his seven-day-a-week job, of his share in protecting the health of a community.

Field trips should fit into the teaching plan. The school may have certain regulations for such activities. In any case, the field trip made in school time should have the approval of the principal, and he should know when the class is going, where it has gone, and when it will be back. This is good administrative policy, and any principal may well think that a teacher is unbusinesslike and even uncooperative who fails to provide his office with this information when a class is off the grounds. The teacher must also make plans with the place to be visited. She needs to acquaint the people with what she wants the group to learn, secure permission; set a time; reach an understanding concerning guides, a talk, or a demonstration. Some one at the place to be visited should know how to get in touch with the teacher if the trip must be called off; a last-minute check-up by the teacher may be important. The housewife, planning to show a group through her new house,

may find it inconvenient if unexpected company comes the night before or the baby is sick. The butcher may find it impossible to discuss cuts of meat because of an unexpected shortage of help or a delayed delivery of meat.

The preparation of pupils for a trip has much to do with its success. They need to have certain definite questions in mind, problems to be solved. A class has raised questions in regard to the new fabrics, colors and color combinations, and special features in construction for the coming season. The girls are interested in why dresses and suits that look very much alike vary so much in price. The teacher suggests that they look in shop windows and study the fashion magazines for answers to their questions. It is early in the season; some questions cannot be answered in these ways. Fashion magazines do not agree entirely with one another or with what is to be seen in the stores. The pupils list what they want to know, and the teacher arranges for a trip to a leading ready-to-wear store. The buyer is going to answer some of their questions, and one of the women on the floor will answer others by showing goods in stock. Any trip should grow out of the pupils' needs and should be carefully prepared for on their part. It should never mean "just going somewhere."

Certain details enter into making the trip: the problem of transportation, carfare in the city, time of starting, name of place to be visited, directions for getting there if some of the group get separated, time of returning. Sometimes trips are made before school, the pupils going to the school from the place visited or, after school, going home from there. All these details must be worked out and understood in advance. Some visits not made during school time may be made by pupils alone. The teacher may make a visit and arrange for the pupils to come by appointment in small groups at their convenience. Many things that are worth while for a group to see cannot be conveniently visited in school time or by a large group at any time. Some classes of older pupils may make one or two trips together and then plan that each member make a visit during the year to some place related to their study and report the visit to the entire group.

Good manners and courtesy during a trip usually need some discussion: following explicitly the directions of the guide, obey-

ing signs posted in a plant, keeping with the group, avoiding crowding, refraining from handling expensive fabrics or ready-to-wear garments and from leaning on nicely finished furniture. If the field trip fitted into the work at hand, discussion will follow naturally. The information learned fits into the larger problem under consideration, questions are asked about doubtful points, and the work goes on. If the teacher has to give a test to find out what the group has learned on the trip, she may well doubt the need for the particular trip at that time. The activity selected, whether a trip, a panel discussion, or laboratory work, should always be the one which, in the teacher's judgment, will contribute most to attaining the learning desired.

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CHAPTER XVI

TEACHING MATERIALS

Many books dealing with various aspects of home economics and home-life problems are available for teachers and students. Scientific knowledge bearing on problems of personal and family living is constantly being increased. Organizations of various sorts are working on problems of interest to the homemaker. Commercial concerns are willing to supply home economics departments with printed leaflets and exhibits of many kinds. Some also provide samples of their products for student use. The homes, stores, local community are full of material valuable for illustrative purposes. Radio programs and movies discuss problems of family living. Familiarity with these various types of material and with the sources from which pupils may secure adequate, reliable information will contribute much to economical and effective learning.

Textbooks

Books provide the most important single source of educational materials for teacher and student use. Their use as textbooks has been almost universal in all fields. Some people today would have no textbooks. Others would have them, but have them used in new ways. A lesson, assigned to be studied and recited upon, fitted into the early plan of education. As home economics developed, it followed the same practice in using textbooks. In early home economics teaching, many teachers separated entirely theory and laboratory work, there being no direct connection between the lesson studied and the practical work going on. Major emphasis at that time was on food and clothing study. As new phases have been added or as emphasis has changed in those aspects already being given, new books have been written—books on family relationships, child development, the house and its furnishings and

care, home management, consumer economics, health of the family, art in the home. With the change from a semester or year of work dealing with one phase to a general course stressing various aspects during a single year, the demand arose for a foundation book which, if mastered, would give the minimum knowledge needed in the course. The psychological approach replaced the logical subject-matter organization in most books written for high-school students. Such books, in the hands of some teachers, provide their courses of study. They are studied and recited upon. The activities carried out by students are the ones they suggest.

Other influences affecting home economics have had their influence upon the textbooks written. The development of the vocational program made the home use of school learning important. Familiarity with home conditions resulted in many changes in the school teaching. The instruction became more and more focused on the meeting of personal and home needs. These real problems had so many different angles and brought the need for such a variety of help that many of the textbooks available no longer fitted into this teaching. The general movement in education to center instruction around large social situations, to organize work into units of instruction, also had its influence on home economics. The project and problem-solving methods became more generally accepted in this field than other proposed unit procedures. Textbooks, as previously thought of and used, were not nearly so important in these new ways of organizing materials.

A more recent movement to integrate the work of the school, to break down barriers between subjects and fields, to center the instruction around life activities, sets still another limitation on the use of the textbook as such. Home economics, properly conceived, does deal with one of the basic institutions of society. It offers education for home and family life. It draws on many fields of knowledge for its materials, but makes these materials into new subject matter as it applies them to problems within this area of living. Home economics itself represents an integrated field, but an everchanging field as social conditions and new knowledge that is acquired affect home and family life. Under such conditions the textbook as first conceived loses significance.

If basic learning needed for life activities becomes the center

of instruction, textbooks to be most useful must step into a new place. Many books must be available, representing different aspects of the work and presenting various points of view. A project is set up; a problem is raised; a question demands an answer. The information in a book is one source of data to be considered. The reliability, completeness, and recency of material all assume importance. Books written for a particular group level—the present-day textbooks—have value. They are more easily read and understood by that group. One source of information, however, in the hands of the pupils and accepted as the word of authority without consideration of other data, works against the acquiring of the scientific attitude, the ability to think, and the ability to direct one's education, all set up as important aims of education. Several different books should be used as basic references, sources of data to be evaluated in finding the best answer.

Much of this source material will be learned, not, however, as teacher-assigned lessons, but because conditions show that it is well to have the information at hand. Frequency of use and relatedness to other problems will be determining factors in deciding what is to be learned. Some things are used so often—sources of minerals and vitamins, proportion of liquid to flour in making biscuits, complementary colors—that it saves time to learn them. Other things are of such a nature or are used so little—diet for a diabetic person, procedure for dyeing, time for steam-pressure canning—that it is sufficient to know where the data may be secured when needed. New points of view, new knowledge—information or experience—not only can be made available more easily but also will be brought to bear on problems more often if the pupils are in the habit of going to many sources. All the trends in education point toward the providing of many sources of materials and away from the use of one book as textbooks are now written.

It should not be overlooked, however, that students at the high-school level need guidance in studying life problems. Books that offer such guidance, leading students into a wider study of problems and to the use of data from many sources in solving these problems can be extremely useful to both students and teacher. To the extent that such books become available, they may be

expected to replace present-day textbooks in which lessons are studied and recited upon as such or are followed so closely that they become the course of study.

Reading Materials

No phase of education is more dependent upon books for success than the broad and changing field of home economics. The books selected should be readable and reliable. Reliability may be based upon recency because of new knowledge or upon accuracy in the facts presented. The teacher may find it desirable to buy few books of a kind, planning the teaching so that one copy does the work of several, in order to keep adding new books as they come out. Some teachers have concentrated on securing books along one line, feeling that they could then forget about it. If a department has no reference material on child development, family relationships, or home management, the teacher may need to make a special study of the spread of a special phase and find out books, bulletins, and special reports available along that line, getting basic material to the exclusion of other material for the time being. Even so, she should not overlook seeing what is new in the other phases of the work. A school with twenty books in nutrition may not be nearly so well off as another school with six books if none of the twenty is a recent book.

Home economics libraries are small, and there has been little money recently for buying books. Range of materials and recency are important factors in the smallest library as well as in the largest. Knowledge concerning basic principles of cookery has changed greatly during the last few years. Information today about nutrition, textiles, and fabrics is quite different from information five years ago. Consumer buying is receiving new emphasis. People are coming to think of the child as a member of the social group rather than as a laboratory specimen. Recent literature in home economics reflects both this new knowledge and new outlook on problems of living and is of concern to home economics teachers. The library should be thought of as a constantly growing source of material for learning.

Consciousness of the breadth of each phase of home economics

is necessary if books are to be selected wisely. To decide what a reference library should have for food study, the teacher must think through the subject in all its aspects: basic cookery principles, buying, food preservation, kitchen utensils, serving, linens, silver, table manners, nutrition, and, perhaps in that particular situation, gardening or foreign cookery. With this survey of the field before her, she can see what she needs as source material. New books should be examined and checked for their contribution in supplying these recognized needs. Books can be ordered for examination, and this is the safest procedure to follow. Authors should be recognized as students in the field, authorities in that particular phase of the work. Not all well-trained people can write, however, and readability is a factor in selecting books for general use. The date of copyright is important in professional material. Date of publication may be misleading, since the same edition may be reprinted under several different dates without revision. A revision may also mean only minor changes.

Books not belonging to the field may have much value in teaching home economics. Science, health, and art books are quite generally used. Many of the classics used in literature study show interesting pictures of social customs and home life. Histories with the social point of view are valuable sources of information concerning working and living conditions of different groups at different times. Present-day fiction has much to give in picturing attitudes toward marriage and home life and in picturing relationship situations between members of the family.

The room library is one of the newer trends in the use of teaching materials. It is usually desirable to have all books classified in the general school library. Sometimes the books are kept permanently in the home economics department. If there is a general library classified and well cared for, a more satisfactory arrangement seems to be to requisition books for class use from the general library for the period of special study. Some books needed for the unit may be used so little during class time that they should remain in the general library for use during study periods. Having books easy of access presents a decided advantage. Some libraries provide special open shelves for the different classes, and books not needed in the classroom are requisitioned by the teacher

to be put on that shelf for a certain unit and are accessible to pupils for use in the library without going to the call desk.

Various government agencies, federal, state, and local, prepare materials bearing on different aspects of home living. Such material is valuable, up-to-date at the time published, and available free or at a nominal cost. Teachers should keep in touch with such sources, counting on them for much current information. Such agencies usually have mailing lists and send out announcements of material.

Several magazines have, for their main purpose, serving the needs of the home and the homemaker. Others have an occasional article. Most newspapers, either during the week or on Sunday, carry some household information. Magazines supply information about styles, new fabrics, and color combinations each season. They present seasonal menus, recipes, and housekeeping suggestions. Many have specialists on their staffs, maintain testing services of one sort or another, and report the results of their findings through their pages or in special leaflets. All printed material should be evaluated for completeness, point of view expressed, and reliability. Some materials, because short-lived, are carelessly prepared; some tell only part of the story. Pupils should be taught to look at all material critically.

Films and the Radio

Films and the radio offer two new mediums which have educational value whether the school makes direct use of them or not. The number of movies which children and young people see in a week and the hours they listen to the radio cannot be ignored. Schools as yet have made and perhaps can make little direct use of radio programs as they are planned today. Some teachers have guided students in evaluating the programs to which they are listening and have helped them in choosing those of most real worth. Some home economics teachers have used rather successfully some of the family series, appearing weekly, as a basis for class discussions. This can only be done if most of the students are listening to these programs. Some transcriptions of radio programs are available for teaching purposes. These uses all have to

do with listening. Many schools today are putting on radio programs over local stations. Home economics students should welcome these opportunities to participate. Planning and putting on such a program has real educational value. In addition, it offers an opportunity to tell other people about home economics and/or to teach others some of the things being learned in home economics.

Films are a more usable classroom medium than the radio. Their use, however, is still limited by cost and the scarcity of good films suitable for educational purposes. A good many educational films have been prepared, and they are being improved constantly. Some of them are prepared to impart knowledge—to show how flour is made, to picture life in Mexico, to show the reactions of a baby. Some are useful in explaining a process—bricklaying, making a bed in a hospital. Some serve their best purpose by the attitudes, appreciations, and ideals which they help to develop. Pictures depicting significant events in the history of this country and such films as *The River* and *The Plow That Broke the Plains*, are of this type. Many commercial films have features of special value—the dress, furniture, and house arrangements in some historical films are both interesting and instructive.

The federal government through its various agencies has prepared a number of films of different kinds. Some are of feature length, including the two just mentioned. Some colleges and universities and a few public and private schools have made films, some of which may be borrowed or rented. Many business and industrial concerns have made films showing various aspects of their work. The Commission on Human Relations of the Progressive Education Association has prepared excerpts from theatrical films for use in discussing significant problems of human relations.[1] Some colleges and universities have film-lending libraries. A few of the larger city and county school systems are building up their own libraries.[2]

A film should be used only when it seems to be the best proce-

[1] Alice V. Keliher, "Motion Pictures for Better Human Relations." *Progressive Education*, 16:431. October, 1939.

[2] Bernice Band, in "Visual Aids Aid You" (*Practical Home Economics*, 19:9-10f., January, 1941) suggests various sources of information about films for school use.

dure in that particular learning situation. It should always be previewed by the teacher before it is used. Instructions for viewing it given to students in advance and opportunity for discussing it after they have seen it will increase the value of films in teaching. The educational aspects of both films and radio have only begun to be explored. Teachers would do well to be alert to their development and direct some time to teacher-pupil evaluation of the materials available through these sources. Certainly every school should feel some responsibility somewhere in its educational program for helping students appraise both movie and radio programs as entertainment and as sources of information.

Illustrative Materials

Illustrative materials may be used for a variety of purposes: to interest a group in immediate learning; to impart information, teach techniques and skills, set standards of work to be done; to broaden the scope of learning by calling attention to new applications; to develop a wider range of interests. Pictures of rats, undernourished children, attractive school dresses, a house before and after the yard has been landscaped, may be used to arouse interest. The teacher may tell the girls of an interesting story she has read, or suggest the reading of a book she thinks they will enjoy. For immediate teaching purposes, she may have a collection of toys for children, fabrics of different colors or designs, several neck finishes. To broaden the scope of learning, a group that has just learned to make bias facing may be shown pictures of garments that use bias as trimming or garments cut on the bias; a class that has just made plain gelatin may be given recipes using it in different dishes. A wider range of interests may be developed by showing pictures of how children of other countries dress, to a class making children's clothes; through giving recipes of foreign dishes, to girls who have been cooking simple home foods.

Illustrative material should be selected for its value in clarifying a point. Too much material or the use of the same material for too many purposes may confuse the situation. A short story may be equally valuable for its picture of a girl's growing up and its portrayal of a family situation. However, if used in personality

study and later in family relationships, its value as illustrative material may be less than another story, perhaps not quite so good, used in one of the situations. Reference may be made to the first story as a second illustration. If there is clear-cut distinction in the two uses made of the material, or if a number of articles are used, this repetition is not so noticeable—as in a wall hanging or a strip of printed linen used at different times to illustrate both color and design. Too frequent use tends to direct attention to the article itself rather than to the learning, and the pupils think they know about it without waiting to see its use in this particular situation.

One of the richest sources of good illustrative material is in the behavior of people—the way Mrs. Jones made Jimmy afraid of the policeman or the dentist, the manner in which Mrs. Smith taught four-year-old Mary the meaning of "charge it" and that bills had to be paid. It is interesting to watch people, to try to think what may be behind their behavior—the thoughtful boy who must have a thoughtful father, the self-reliant cripple who must have had some one who helped him develop a courageous outlook on life. It is interesting also to try to predict where behavior at a certain age is taking an individual, the kind of adolescent the little child will be, the kind of grown-up. The right incident has much value in causing a point to be remembered. The teacher need not try to be an amusing after-dinner speaker, although that may be an asset in a different situation. Understanding people comes only from knowing them. The teacher may add to her own development while collecting illustrative material to use in her classes.

Stores can supply many things and, if the material is well cared for and returned promptly, they are usually glad to lend it. For obvious reasons, a trip to a store sometimes best serves the purpose. More material is available, some articles are too bulky to move, and others are of such a nature that the shopkeeper prefers not to have them out of stock even for a short time. In some instances less material used in the teaching environment is of greater teaching value than the larger amount at the store. A few undergarments well selected for teaching purposes may be worth much more than a large number of garments hastily looked over at the

store. Articles away from a store may be examined much more objectively. Several brands of hose or gloves may be desired for purposes of study and may need to be obtained from different places.

Many things may be brought from home. Bed and table linens, towels used over a long period of time, undergarments that have worn well or poorly, laundered satisfactorily or unsatisfactorily—all are valuable teaching materials, and valuable only as secured from people who are using them. Clothing to show color, style, fabrics, wearing and laundering qualities; pieces of silver; dishes; and hand-made linens are needed in many lessons. Family pictures add a personal touch to a study of change in style. Articles that have stood the test of time and use in the home are worth much in teaching buying.

The department itself, its furniture, furnishings, and equipment, should be a rich source of materials. It should be built and furnished with this use partly in mind. It should teach beauty in color and design through its furnishings; order through the way it is used and cared for. All kinds of material—porcelain, blocked tin, glass, Monel metal—should be available in the foods laboratory. Cards kept on all purchases, giving time and place of purchase, cost, statement given by sales person as to any special features or merit, add to the teaching value of the furnishings and equipment. Purchases of supplies of all kinds—canned goods, fruits, meats—may serve for illustrative material in teaching buying. If three cans of tomatoes are to be used, they may represent three different brands or grades or sizes of cans.

Some material will need to be collected and kept especially for illustrative purposes: single dishes of different kinds of ware, pieces of handwork, various textile materials, fabrics showing different weaves, designs, colors, trimmings, laces, embroideries, woods of different kinds and finishes. Pictures of furniture, costumes, room arrangement and prints suitable for the home will have to answer in some cases. The department budget should include money for illustrative material. It would be better to spend less money for maintenance than to scrimp greatly on illustrative material.

Some materials may be collected without cost by a resourceful

teacher. The family scrapbag may provide a valuable textile collection. Girls can be encouraged to get their mother's permission to look over the fabrics at home and bring pieces to school. Pieces of worn-out garments and pieces of the new material, if the articles were made at home, will contribute to an interesting collection showing wearing and laundering qualities of fabrics. A good collection of dress trimmings, laces, and buttons can usually be secured in the same way if the teacher will be satisfied with small pieces of cloth and single buttons. Some pieces of cloth need to be large enough to be handled, held up to the figure for becomingness of color, suitability of design, showing how sheen in a fabric increases apparent size. These will need to be purchased. Labels on canned and packaged goods may be kept. Charts may be made of a single product, technical data on the subject, the advertising of the product, and labels from the packaged goods.

The teacher will need to prepare some materials, make a variety of seams, neck finishes, tailoring processes, color charts of fabrics. Some work of the pupils is worth keeping for illustrative purposes: home project plans and reports, the trial pieces on which they have made seams, plackets, bound a scallop, the house plan remodeled, the score card worked out for biscuits, the list of factors to be considered in planning a wardrobe. Work of other girls is usually worth more than that of the teacher in setting a standard. The teacher may save several levels of previous work, average, good, and very good, and the girls measure their progress in learning against this scale. Girls, keeping samples of their clothing construction work from the first year to the second, can see how much they have progressed with practice. Often the work is done less well the second year. Kodak pictures of homes before and after improvement, of made-over garments, are useful in teaching. One teacher took pictures of the first-year girls in the first dresses they made. These same girls were taken two years later in the junior party dresses which they had also made. The girls themselves were much interested and quite surprised at their progress during the time. The pictures, however, were worth even more to the teacher to show a class of awkward beginners, who had despaired of ever learning to sew or to acquire grace and poise, what another group had done.

Commercial Materials

A great deal of free material—bulletins, leaflets, charts, exhibits, samples—has been made available to schools by commercial concerns. Because this has been free and easily obtained, it has frequently been used without being evaluated. Such material, accepted for teaching purposes, should be studied as to reliability and value in teaching as carefully as though it were being purchased. Printed materials may tell only part of the story. Jim tells his mother that he didn't go swimming in the lake, but he neglects to tell her that he did go in the river. Home economics classes should find out the meaning of stamps, seals, signatures of associations on commercial goods. They may mean what they say, but do the girls know what they say? The lay person often thinks of all such marks as a guarantee always of high quality.

Many household products are offered free to home economics classes in sufficient quantity for use throughout the year, and this frequently results in the use of one product to the exclusion of other brands. The teacher should plan her work to teach what she wishes to teach, using baking powder with different bases, quick- and long-cooking cereals, different brands and grades of canned and packaged goods, and use this free material, if she feels she wants to accept it, only where it fits into her teaching plans. It saves much time for girls to have recipe books, and many are provided free. The fact that they are prepared with special branded goods does not seem to worry some teachers in using them for teaching purposes. Only when such recipes are considered with others does such teaching point to the development of the scientific attitude in learning.

The Bulletin Board

Displaying illustrative material that is directly concerned with the teaching or displaying material of general interest to home economics students presents a problem. A bulletin board in the hall for materials of wide interest is a good way to keep the whole school in touch with the work of the home economics department

as well as to call the students' attention to materials of special interest to them. All the girls will be interested in suggestions as to the season's styles, new materials being used, colors most popular. Fashion hints for boys will prove equally interesting. Bulletin boards within the department should be large enough for the purpose and placed so that they are easily accessible. A strip across the top of a blackboard has little teaching value even in high-school classes. It may give a girl some satisfaction to know that her houseplan is up there, but she cannot learn much from those of her classmates when displayed at such a height. Some teachers prefer that each class have its own board to be used for all materials of interest and value to it.

Material may be placed on the bulletin board to awaken interest in work yet to come; to increase understanding of the work going on; to enrich further learnings already acquired; or to broaden the whole background of the students. Students should feel free to bring material to school to put on the bulletin board. Teaching materials often need to be put where they can be examined easily after being discussed in class. The bulletin board offers a good place for the samples of fabrics suitable for school dresses, for the strip of cloth showing the steps in making a buttonhole or the different fancy stitches. It can be taken down by a girl for closer observation and replaced when she is through with it. A window shade, placed at the top of the blackboard to be pulled down as needed, can be used for this temporary material if the bulletin boards are needed for other purposes.

Material should be well placed, neatly and artistically arranged so far as this does not interfere with its use. It should be taken down when it has served its immediate purpose, to be put up later if needed again. Charts that show cuts of meats, parts of a sewing machine, or alteration of patterns have no decorative value and should be stored when not needed for the teaching at hand.

Caring for the Material

Teaching materials, to be most useful, must be in good condition and easily accessible. This means mounting certain kinds: clippings from newspapers and magazines, samples of fabrics,

laces, pictures, examples of clothing-construction processes. Rough, natural or gray drawing paper is inexpensive, makes a good background, and wears fairly well with reasonable care in handling and storing. Materials should be mounted carefully with attention to spacing. One piece of cloth or one picture to a mount is usually best unless two or more are needed to explain each other, as fabrics before and after laundering, pictures of a farm yard before and after landscaping. Labeling needs to be accurate and adequate for the purpose. Printed materials should give both the source and the date of publication. Some teachers like to make a note in pencil, sometimes on the back of the mount, as to the use made of the material in teaching: personal relationship unit, to arouse interest in personal grooming; clothing unit, second year, to test recognition of harmony in dress.

Filing presents two problems: the keeping of the material itself and the system by which the teacher and the pupils know what they have and where it is. A filing cabinet—an apple crate, a home-made cabinet, or a steel case—is the best place to keep materials that are flat and not too bulky. Some materials may be in large envelopes; others, mounted. Single copies of bulletins, pamphlets, leaflets may be kept in a filing cabinet or in bulletin boxes. Such material in sufficient copies for class use is best kept in bulletin or other boxes.

The filing system should be worked out before filing begins. Subject-matter divisions provide for more flexible use; material on table linens may be used one year in a foods unit, and the next in a house unit; girls may want it in their home project work, and the teacher may have a request for it from a member of her adult class. These large headings will need to be divided and sub-divided as more material is collected. The complete key to the filing system should be available for marking new material so that it fits properly into the system. Marking "linens, table" one time, and "table linen" the next time, causes unnecessary confusion. Each envelope, bulletin, and mounted piece should have the key for filing on it. An alphabetical system is easily expanded as more material is secured. Pupils should help in planning for the filing and in filing. They will then know better how to use and care for the files, as well as what material is available.

A card system is not only desirable for keeping track of material, knowing what material is on hand and where it may be found, but it is essential if the pupils are to become independent in solving class and home problems. The card system follows the same general plan of headings as the filing except that when material is valuable for several uses a card appears indicating each. A bulletin may have information on materials suitable for children's clothes and in laundering these same materials; two cards will then be filed, the heading under which the bulletin is filed being indicated on each. Different-colored cards are convenient for indicating the nature of the material, one color each for bulletins, clipped articles, books, exhibits and illustrative materials, pictures. Cards referring to printed materials should give such descriptive data as title, author, date, source. Such cards are more useful if a brief statement as to the nature and value of the material is included. Topic cards referring to material of special value in books will make the books much more usable in the solving of special problems.

Materials which cannot be put in filing cases should be stored in convenient and easily accessible boxes or packages, clearly and conveniently marked. Storage should be made as nearly dustproof as possible and, in all cases, mouseproof and ratproof. Shelves should be marked so that material may be put back easily. Boxes should be labeled as to content. Posters are hard to keep unless a special case or drawer is built for them. All material should be gone over periodically and that which is worn out or no longer useful should be discarded.

Teachers collect much illustrative material of their own, subscribe to magazines, and buy books. Generously they use and allow the use of this material at school. Sometimes these materials become so much a part of the department that when the teacher leaves and takes them with her everyone else has forgotten that they really are hers. At other times a teacher has difficulty in knowing just what does belong to her. Books, bulletins, and other material purchased by her are, of course, hers, and they should be marked as such when secured. Books sent to her as the teacher of home economics, unless a gift from the author to her as a personal friend, belong to the school or the department. This applies also to bulletins, pamphlets, and all such material. Illustrative material purchased by the school or the work of the girls, saved for teaching

purposes, is school property unless the teacher arranges for a second set for herself. If the teacher keeps her own books at school, they should be on a special shelf, properly labeled. If she brings illustrative material of her own, it should be kept separately and marked as her property. Later misunderstandings can be prevented by using reasonable care in marking any personal belongings left at school for any length of time.

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CHAPTER XVII

THE HOME AS AN EDUCATIONAL AGENCY

At one time all education for home living and homemaking took place within the home. Parents accepted that as their job, whether they gave much conscious attention to it or not. Home economics developed out of a belief that many mothers no longer had the time or the necessary skills to prepare their daughters adequately for making a home. The movement for nursery schools began in providing places for the caring of small children for working mothers. The present nursery school has gone a long way from those day nurseries. Some enthusiastic supporters a few years ago would have all children educated in such schools. Nursery schools today are assuming a quite different place in educational thinking. Out of such experiences is emerging a belief that the education which takes place within the home is the most effective education which the child receives, and that if well done no schooling can take its place. And, if poorly done, it may nullify much of the good the school would do.

The Learning Provided by the Home

The girl entering home economics will already have formed attitudes in regard to home life itself, ways of living with other people, what success is, work as a worth-while activity—attitudes growing largely out of her life within the home. Her life there will also have provided her with standards of value: dressing well is more important than being properly nourished or caring for one's health; life away from home is more interesting than at home; other people are more worth while than one's own family; keeping up with the neighbors is essential to happiness. The home will have given instruction in food to eat, preferences in cooking, table manners, general social conduct, personal hygiene, care of clothing. All these attitudes, standards of value, habits and skills would be

strong influences in future learning in any field, but they will have unusual influence in home economics.

Some girls will come to school knowing how to do a great many homemaking activities; some good, others not so good. They will be skilful in buying, caring for children, cooking food, laundering, sewing, caring for the house. Many of their practices will be imitating their mothers' ways, and those ways will sometimes be grandmothers' ways. Home economics must recognize the contribution which the home has already made, regardless of the kind that it is, build on it, supplement it when necessary, and, redirect it when desirable.

Home education will not stop when home economics education begins. The school learning will be colored constantly by what is going on in the home. If home economics helps make life easier and more satisfying, it will be seen as important and worth while. If, on the other hand, it deals with unrelated material or gets beyond the possibility of realization in their lives, home economics will be catalogued, like much of the work in other fields, as just a school subject. The home itself is real; its problems are vital. The family is being clothed, fed, and housed; its health protected; its life made interesting according to the family's resources both of material goods and facility in using them and the family's standards of value.

The home economics teaching may make the girl emotionally dissatisfied with her home. She may want to tear down the family pictures, throw away the rugs with their flowers and animals, break up the bric-a-brac gathered from county and street fairs. When it comes to important issues, however, where the home and home economics are really at cross purposes, the home is usually the more influential agency whether for good or ill. Unless the home economics department and the home learn to work together, the girl in such cases may revert entirely to family ways, undesirable though they may be, when the teaching period is over.

The Family and the Teacher Share Responsibility

Education for home living and for homemaking must be seen in the end as a joint responsibility of the home and the school and

a responsibility that extends beyond the home economics department. The kind of home-life education needed has changed greatly within recent years—the responsibility of both the home and the school is quite different today than even twenty years ago. A great deal of the home training in the early days went along with producing the family living, the spinning and weaving, the working in the garden, the canning of fruit, the caring for chickens. Much of this is no longer done in the home. Problems of selecting and buying food, clothing, and housefurnishings, protecting health, choosing recreation are quite different. Problems of relationships also differ. The home situation in addition carries an emotional weighting which, although having great value in life, may at the same time prevent growth in new directions, in socially desirable ways, as conditions change. Succeeding generations have always seen things differently. An older generation consigned men to a minor place in the activities of the household. Many men do not yet see that they should share equally in making home life a success and in the rearing of children. Nor have women as a group been successful in adjusting their desire for recognition in the world of work outside the home and the making of a home. The responsibility is not entirely theirs but the problem exists nevertheless. Parents alone can no longer educate satisfactorily for home life and for homemaking even if they were willing to try to do it. They must be induced, however, to assume consciously and intelligently their share of responsibility in the task.

Parents are interested in the welfare of their children. The strongest motives in the lives of parents, as a group, are the desire that their children have a better chance than they had and the desire that the conditions under which they live may be improved. Home economics could not ask for two stronger motivating forces to help in putting over a good program. Parents may not always see the "good" of their children in ways which mean most in the long run either for the individual or for society. Many have wished for material things for their children and sought them at the expense both of spiritual values and the values to be gained from putting in real effort to accomplish worth-while things. This desire of parents, however, is a factor which should be used, modified, redirected, broadened as occasion demands.

The home economics department and the home together should set up objectives to be realized in the education of children for home and family living. The home and the home economics department must be thought of as joint laboratories. The teacher may be of great help in assisting parents to understand their own children. The home sees problems from an intimate, personal point of view. The home economics department should approach them objectively, aware of the vast amount of experience which may be drawn on to solve problems and to educate the next generation. An important job of home economics is to get parents, present and future, to realize the importance of the home, especially in the early years, in the lives of its members and to accept a greater conscious share in the education of their children. The homes of the future should be better educational agencies because of the home economics of today. For parents to want to do is not enough, however. Home economics must help in improving the quality of living in the homes of its students so that they and their children experience a richer life and through experiencing learn to cherish it and to live it.

The school brings the experiences of others to bear on problems and has contact with a wide range of materials, but its teachings are theory until the individual or the home tries them out in real-life situations. This is true even though discussions center around true-to-life problems; the cooking is of actual food; the sewing is done on real materials. The more of this realness put into its teaching by the school, the more easily will the learning be used in the actual personal and home situation. It is well that some agency can take a situation out of its many personal influences and focus attention on its various parts. A girl can learn the fundamentals of cookery most easily by taking a job at a time, by preparing a meal under close supervision—with no person depending for his dinner upon the success of the several products, or depending on getting to work in the morning upon breakfast's being on time. No greater incentive can be supplied, however, than for the girl to know that in the end her success is to be measured by the meals she prepares at home. The girl should bring problems from the home to the school for solution, seeking technical information about nutrition and cookery, textiles, kitchen equipment, and

familiarity with the experiences of others in rearing children, in buying a home, in living happily with one's family.

The school may initiate work, discuss its many aspects, teach the necessary learnings, and turn it over to the individual for final testing of success either in personal or home situations. It should try to interest the girls in what economic security or the lack of it may mean to the family, what increased leisure may mean both in individual and home life, what decreased incomes may do to standards of living, what the father out of work and the mother gainfully employed may mean in standards of home-making and in the rearing of children, what war may do to family life, what the demands of national defense may mean to the level of living.

The school should point to large social problems which have a bearing on home and family life, give attention to the conditions which have led up to them and the possible direction in which solutions lie. Society in its larger aspects has shown all too little willingness to adjust its activities and interests to the good of family life. Some of the responsibility for furthering such a shift in emphasis may well rest with the teachers of home economics, especially with the increase in the number of persons taking the work. The school not only should not teach what the home is now doing well, but it should encourage the home to take over whatever other teaching it can do best. The teacher must help the girls to see what their homes and their parents have to teach them. In a family-relationships unit, girls had been encouraged to work for a "family-night" recreation program. Sometime later one girl, writing to a friend about these evenings popping corn, making candy, mother's showing them how to card cotton, father's telling stories he had heard from his grandfather about the early settling of that section, ended her letter, "We've had such a grand time, and none of us children realized before that father and mother knew so much or were such fun."

Home economics is immediately successful to the degree that it teaches boys and girls to live more satisfying lives in their present homes. This need not mean to be satisfied with their homes as they are. Home economics, however, has sometimes been so taught that, if it had had great influence, it would have taken the young

people far away from home so far as their real interests in life were concerned. If home economics is to function in the home now, it may mean seeing art principles in terms of arranging dogwood in stone crocks or larkspur in pickle bottles; realizing that privacy, respect for the rights of others, may be a curtain across the corner of a room for bathing, or seeking permission before wearing another's clothes; appreciating that thoughtfulness of others may mean leaving grandfather's enlarged picture on the living-room wall, and does mean coming to meals on time. A teacher who saw her teaching of ideals in family relationships bear fruit through the purchase of more wash basins and combs for the back porch in order that the twelve children of the family might get to meals on time was directing the learning toward a more satisfying home life now and later.

The home should influence the school work done in home economics. Home economics teaching in turn should leave its mark on the life of the student outside school and especially in the area of family living. Home practice work and home projects offer the best mediums for putting home economics instruction to work within the home.

Home Practice Work

Home practice is the term commonly applied to homework which is largely the practice of things done at school. The girls at school see a demonstration of cooking cereal, and with their recipes and simple directions go home and prepare cereal. They help paint a chair, see it done step by step, and do some of the work themselves. The girls may have the whole process fairly well in mind, but unless they do a larger piece of work soon, check their learning on a real job, they will very likely forget what they have learned. They are encouraged to find something at home which needs painting and then paint it. Home practice activities should always fit into the home life. The food to be cooked should become a part of the family's meals. The bathroom should be cleaned because it has been used and needs cleaning. Work schedules tried out at home should care for the work to be done in that home.

Home practice work may be carried out in all areas of home economics: social conduct, table manners, darning hose, washing dishes, getting along with one's brothers and sisters. It carries little new learning with it, but does help fix procedures discussed at school and tried out there on a small scale or by several students working together. It is an effective factor in home economics teaching and should not be overlooked. It is a method for developing skill, for perfecting techniques, for minor modifications of procedures, and it does test simple learning.

Sometimes, however, practice has seemed to be the only aim. Check lists have been prepared and pupils have reported the activities practiced together with the number of these practices. Quantity replaces quality in importance. Attention should center instead on the setting of goals to be attained, a way of working to be perfected, a certain degree of skill to be realized. The reaching of that level should be the measure of success, and one practice should be considered sufficient if in that practice the aim is attained. The pupil, then, practices with a purpose, measures her progress against a standard set up.

The Place of Home Projects

Out-of-school living is the final and only complete measure of successful in-school learning. Classroom instruction is still largely group instruction under artificial conditions. The teacher and the girl need to know how far the girl is going to be able to use the specific habits and skills, special abilities, and general behavior patterns learned in school in the meeting of life situations outside the classroom. Many personal and family problems arise in the life of each girl. Some of these can be solved in class. There are others, however, which are of special interest only to her, or for which there is not class time, or which can be done only under home conditions. The home project has been the activity most often used to bring the school instruction and the home together. It is a real-life activity, using school learning, together with new learning needed for the particular work at hand, planned and carried out by the girl. The school situation is never like the one at home, and only as the girl can interpret the school learning in

meeting these out-of-school problems has the teaching and the learning been worth while. Through the home project the girl checks the effectiveness of her learning; and the teacher, the effectiveness of her teaching.

Home projects have another value. Regardless of the enriched content of home economics and of the realness of the teaching environment, many experiences the girl should have cannot be provided by the school. The attempt may be made to bring into food problems at school the family preferences, the money available, food needs of the different members; but, at their best, school activities still fall far short of planning, preparing, and serving meals at home with the baby sick, John's bringing a friend home unannounced, father's being late, the grocer's forgetting to include the fresh tomatoes in the order. Class discussion may center around getting along with a younger brother or sister; good suggestions may be made, but until they are proved effective in practice and the girl shows her own growth through using them they are still theory, regardless of how good they may sound.

Successful home project work is dependent upon successful school work. This is true from the standpoint both of the teaching and of the pupil learning. Home projects are not a medium through which poor school work can be redeemed. The school learning must provide the foundation from which the home project develops. Knowledge about nutrition, textiles, and buying; skill in interpreting recipes and patterns; ability to plan school activities successfully; standards of good finished products; and ideals of family life and an attractive and comfortable home, acquired at school are essential if home project work is to be worth while, satisfying to the individual, the home, and the teacher.

Criteria for Home Projects

Successful home project work rests on the shared responsibility of the home, the school, and the girl. To be successful from the point of view of the home, the home project must meet a real need, must be possible of being carried out in the regular life of the home, and must have both family approval and promise of

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support and cooperation as needed. From the point of view of the school, the teacher is especially interested in projects that grow out of and are related to the work of the school; that contribute to pupil growth along lines needed at that time; that are thought through in terms of definite accomplishments to be realized; that serve in a satisfactory manner the purpose for which they were planned. To have value for the girl, a project should be of interest to her, meet a real need, present a problem worth solving. It should be within the scope of her ability to do and yet demand real thought and effort on her part—require thinking, planning, forming judgments, and the seeking of new learning—and be within the scope of the time she has for working and the materials and means at her disposal. It should be seen in terms of a definitely measurable goal. Means for measuring progress should be available. The project should be completed and the way of working and the results evaluated. The time it takes to do a project should never be a criterion of its worth or the success of the work itself.

The Teacher and Home Projects

The teacher's share in the success of home project work is a very large one. She must herself see the worth of projects in a teaching program. If, during her training period or later, she has become conscious of needs in her development which can be met best through selecting, planning, carrying out, and evaluating home projects herself, she will have gone a long way in appreciating and understanding their value as an agency in learning. From the standpoint of the pupils, the teacher's first job is to get them to understand the meaning and purpose of home projects, that they are one way of learning, of reaching the goals which the girls themselves have helped to set up for their work; that like any good learning activity they must be carefully selected with definite ends in view, planned before work begins, carried to completion, and the results evaluated; that they offer opportunity for greater development in self-direction than is possible at school. They should understand that, whereas school conditions can be largely controlled to meet the needs of the problem being worked on, home projects in operation are themselves controlled by the home situa-

tion and must adjust to real-life situations throughout the time they are being carried out.

Teacher guidance will be needed in selection. The home needs and pupil interests and needs must be measured against school readiness to carry out the project. If the pupils understand the purpose of home project work and if they have agreed on criteria for good work, the teacher's share in selection will center on seeing that consideration is given to the necessary points. Frequently a project which would be easy a few months later, after certain school instruction, is more or less of a failure because it was undertaken too soon. Teacher guidance must help the girl see the activity she is considering for home project work in its proper relationship to her level of experience, home conditions for successful solving, and school learning.

Girls often need help in finding time to do the project in which they are most interested. A group of girls who were working on a unit in the house became interested in exterior improvements. They wanted to do yard projects, but the family laundry on Saturdays prevented the carrying out of such home activities. The teacher made use of their desire for more attractive homes to lead them to a study of different ways of doing laundry work, and the girls saw home projects in laundering as the way to get their yards fixed. Leading the pupils to select projects within the family means, to see the value of those which may cost no money, and to be satisfied with others which have real worth but little in material results, is an important step in selection. The real development which comes from reducing the cost of food for a family, planning the home work so that all the members may have more recreation, working out wholesome, satisfying relationships with brothers and sisters, usually far exceeds that which comes from newly painted porch furniture or a flower garden in the side yard, but it is not so easy to point to as a mark of success.

The third step in successful project work is planning. Pupil thinking is important, although the teacher will need to contribute at many points. Pupils will vary in the kind and amount of help needed. The selection of the project should include the end in view—not just preparing suppers, but preparing suppers in order to learn to cook several simple dishes at one time, to plan

meals adequate for the family at a given cost for each person, to get supper in forty minutes or less. Planning includes thinking through the work to be done, what is already known and what must be learned; the time needed, both in amount and time of day or week; the cost; the help needed and how it may be obtained; the means of measuring progress, including the necessary records. The girl who leaves home early in the morning and gets home late at night cannot undertake the same kind of projects as the girl who lives close to school. One girl may do a good yard project because her father can help her grade the yard; another may be kept from doing a yard project because her father works away from home. The girl who keeps no records of costs in meal planning or time in meal preparation cannot tell how successful she is being in keeping costs down or in reducing time in her work. Carefully guided planning will prevent many discouragements that might arise later, a project too difficult, parents' objecting to the cost, or the lack of the help that is needed.

Teacher guidance will be needed while the work is going on, recognizing work already done, encouraging when things seem at a standstill, prodding a little when the girl seems about to quit. The girl will also need help over difficulties, new techniques must be taught, sources of help sighted, standards set up against which to measure progress. New plans may need to be made to care for unexpected angles in the work.

Any learning activity should be evaluated. The teacher must offer help in seeing just what has been done, its value in terms of learning, and its value as an end product. Methods of working should be weighed and better ones, which might be used the next time, thought out. Jobs, which were not included in the original plan but which would add to its worth, and larger pieces of work, which should perhaps be undertaken at some later time, should be considered. The teacher should also evaluate her share in the home project work: where she has been successful; where her difficulties in guiding home project work lie. Does she do too much or too little? Is she farsighted in seeing pupil needs, or is she only aware of them when things are in a muddle? Just as the pupil grows in home project work so should the teacher expect to grow in ability to guide such work successfully, and part of

her evaluation of the results should focus on her own share in the work.

Supervising Home Projects

The ways in which a project may be supervised best depends upon the type of project. Home visiting is being recognized quite generally as the heart of home project supervision—visiting, in which the teacher finds out what the families and the girls need and want, enlists family cooperation, follows the work being done, and, with the mother and the girl, evaluates the work. Many schools are extending the period of the teacher's employment in order that her help in the homes may continue for a longer period, that projects which cannot be carried out during the school year may be done during the summer under her supervision.

A first visit in a home is sometimes difficult, especially if the community is not used to home visiting or if a previous teacher has thought of her visits as an opportunity to inspect home practices. A teacher may find that she can make a first visit friendly and informal by meeting the parents outside the home, by asking another girl who is well acquainted there to go with her, or by dropping in casually when out walking or driving. One teacher got into a number of homes by offering her services in putting the sewing machines in good order when girls wanted to stitch at home. This same teacher got from the front of the house to the kitchen by offering to help in regulating ovens when the girls were trying out baking recipes at home. A teacher needs to locate the homes of all the pupils on a road map if she is in a village or the country; on a town or city map, if in more thickly settled districts. This may need to be drawn with the pupils' help if no official maps are available. With the homes located she can plan to pass by certain ones when she goes for a walk or someone takes her for a drive. A comment the next day about the dog in the yard, the maple tree by the road, or the baby on the porch may get her the invitation not previously given.

Home economics teachers in many schools have done such a good job of home visiting that the family looks forward with eagerness to their coming and will welcome the new teacher as a

new friend. The teacher who enters upon her visiting with real friendliness and a sincere desire to know the homes of the pupils and to see how home economics can contribute to a more satisfying life within the home will find the girl and her family meeting her more than halfway, seeing her as a friend and not as an inspector or critic. No home economics teacher should be content until home visiting is an accepted part of her work. Teachers who are employed for a period longer than the school year have a distinct advantage. They should, however, postpone neither their visiting not their home project work until this extra time. A more intensive home project program can be carried out during vacation, and certain types of projects are possible only then, but the home visiting and home project work should be going on throughout the year.

The mother may give supervision in many instances, especially when she and the teacher have had an opportunity to discuss the particular help the daughter needs and how the mother can give it. Sometimes another girl can supervise certain details of a job that she has already done successfully. Conferences at school are valuable. Reports and records indicate a certain kind of progress. Special tests may be set up. Success in project work should be reflected in school work in home economics. The girl who reports "Good" in trying out new recipes at home should be expected to show improvement in food-preparation work at school. Clothing or household furnishings made at home and samples of baked goods may be brought to school for discussion and evaluation. Personal grooming should be evident in daily dress at school.

Using School Time for Home Project Work

Home project work is a recognized part of school work. However, if too much is done at school, it defeats its own purpose. School time should be used to get pupils to see home projects as a part of school learning, to give general suggestions about possible projects and things to which to give attention in selecting and planning them. The making of the tentative plan for first projects may well be considered a part of class work. Later the girl should do it with less teacher help and should then do it in class only

if she has time not needed for other work. Writing up the records and reports represents the same type of work as the planning so far as use of class time is concerned. Getting help on a doubtful technique and looking up needed material in the files are necessary frequently and should be permitted as part of class work.

Class discussion relating to projects in operation does much to stimulate the individual girl and to broaden the point of view of the entire group concerning the possibilities of home project work. Some schools excuse girls for a class period every week or two in recognition of the time given at home to such work. When the school schedule is convenient and girls live close by, they may work at home during this time. Others use the period for studying in other lines, thus saving home-study time for home project work. Many administrative officers, teachers, and pupils believe that home economics, well taught and with a well-planned home project program, gives the girl enough added time through better management and efficiency in doing home duties to more than make up for the time spent on home project work. The school conference has become an important feature in supervision. Some schools schedule the teacher with a conference period daily. Other teachers try to plan the use of class time so that they may take one or two students or small groups daily for such discussions.

A few schools, having a period daily to be used for various extra-curricular activities, leave one period weekly for such help as pupils may need from any teacher in the school. Home economics girls who have been having difficulty with a home job may come for help then. The girl who has not had success with her pastry or cakes may bring her materials and try out her recipe under teacher guidance. The girl who is uncertain about altering her pattern may bring it to the department for checking. Girls should be encouraged to be independent, but independent intelligently. The girl who spoils a dress in order to say that she made it alone or who bakes six cakes, the last no better than the first, is not progressing very rapidly in her learning. Some teachers leave formal scheduling of conferences to the girl. Others feel it wise during the first projects to keep in close touch with the progress being made even though the girl may not recognize a need for help. Most teachers inform themselves during the week, through

casual questioning in the hall, between classes, or during the laboratory work, if no formal conference is needed or desired as to the progress being made.

The Family and the Home Project Program

Successful home project work as well as successful homemaking is a joint enterprise. The family, especially the parents, should feel that they are partners with the teacher in the job of education and partners with the girl in the activity. If home economics has been helpful in the home through home practice work and the other uses the girl has made of her school learning, this interest, encouragement, and cooperation will not be hard to get. The actual part the family plays will vary with the type of project. The girl trying to work out a better understanding with her younger brother may need a sympathetic parent to help the boy see his relationship to his sister. The girl who is trying to landscape the yard may need someone to help grade, fill in gullies, and build a terrace. The girl who is trying her hand at cooking may need patience when meals are late, when muffins are cold from being baked too soon, or when the vegetables are unsalted.

No better type of project can be encouraged than the partnership project—a girl's planning meals and doing the marketing while her mother does the cooking; planning the day for a small child and providing certain recreation, the mother's looking after the rest of the schedule; cooperating in a family-recreation program, the family's dividing into teams and taking turns in providing recreation; the whole family's working on a home improvement program or a plan for better family relationships. Many brothers and sisters, enrolled in vocational programs of agriculture and home economics, have united in a home project program to improve rural home life.[1] The girl's part in all such joint activities should stand out so that she can plan her share, carry it out, and evaluate its results. Such projects are not for beginners. The girl must grow up to them. They are goals, however, toward which to work.

[1] See Ivol Spafford, *A Functioning Program of Home Economics*, pp. 237-238. John Wiley and Sons. 1940.

Parents have a contribution to make in evaluating the work of the girl, in giving concrete suggestions not only on the kind of results but also on the places where she is strong and weak in her ways of working. Mary plans a well-balanced meal and buys carefully but she does not think enough of the work side in her planning. Frequently, several things need attention at the same time. She may use the oven for one dish when she could have baked three at the same time just as well. Sarah is afraid to depend on herself. She tests the oven carefully and then asks her mother if it is the correct temperature. Jane starts enthusiastically at a new job, but her interest wanes before she has reached a high level of proficiency.

The teacher may use these criticisms to evaluate her own teaching. Have school meals been planned so that one person can get them easily under home conditions? Is the oven used to capacity when more than one dish is to be prepared that day? Does she insist upon seeing the oven test before baking is done?

The Girl and Her Home Project Program

Discussion of out-of-school use of home economics should start early in the school work. The habit of looking to home economics for help in solving personal and home problems should be well established by the end of the year. This can probably be done best through worth-while, progressive home practice work and short, well-planned and well-executed home projects. It seems desirable that every phase of home economics during the year be carried over into a carefully planned home activity.

First-year projects should grow out of and be closely related to both the school instruction and the individual and home needs. The girl may see big things at home that she wants to do, especially if she is familiar with the work of other girls. These large activities may often be broken up into smaller jobs, related to her learning, which can be carried out at that time. Girls are often too optimistic about the amount of work they can do and the facilities which the family can make available. It is especially important in the beginning to avoid overambitious projects, those that take too long to do or too much effort before results begin to

show up. Care in setting up the means of checking progress helps the beginner to see how she is getting along and prevents discouragement. Such out-of-school activities as personal grooming, the best way of doing the dishes, putting system into the Saturday morning work, learning to prepare well the regular family suppers, and giving more real companionship to mother represent fairly short-time pieces of work which, if they interest the girl and meet a need, may be set up and carried out as complete projects.[2]

Successful home project work depends upon students' seeing home projects as important, the medium through which certain objectives of home economics may be realized. Projects may grow out of class activities or they may originate directly from home needs. If the goals of home economics have been broadly planned with students, they will represent their out-of-school needs and interests interpreted into the school situation. As learning goes on, the girls will see that certain learning can be attained only as their experiencing *under guidance* extends beyond the school situation. They then seek to find out-of-school activities for achieving this learning. Such projects may be said to originate in the classroom. Students, on the other hand, may be aware of home situations which they would like to learn to meet or to meet differently. This awareness of need may grow out of school experiencing. Students then come to school seeking help in meeting these situations. In good home economics teaching, home living and school experiencing are so closely interwoven that one cannot be entirely separated from the other, which is as it should be.

In setting up the individual home project, the student needs to recognize the steps essential for success. The first step is the selecting of a project. Learning should stand out in the student's mind as she begins to think of various home experiences from which to select a project. Personal and home needs should be surveyed, measured against the criteria set up by the class for good projects, and a tentative selection made. The next step is the making of a skeleton plan. If the project seems feasible to the girl when the broad outlines of a plan have been made, final approval of home and teacher should be sought.

The working plan with its definite goals should then be made.

[2] For other examples of home projects see *Ibid.*, pp. 230-234.

Actual accomplishments to be worked for should be set up in the title of the project: the preparing of a winter wardrobe utilizing all the clothes on hand and keeping the new ones within twenty dollars. The later details of the plan should include the old learning to be used, the new learning needed, the kind of help needed and where it is to be secured, and the ways of measuring progress as the work goes on. The plan will be modified and added to as work progresses.

The girl is now ready to begin actual work on the project. Girls would often like to skip the planning and begin here. This is usually due to unplanned work at school. Growth in planning should be seen as one of the major purposes of home project work. The carrying out of the project will involve learning the new things needed—mixing dyes to match draperies; evaluating success on single jobs done so that each practice may mean progress in learning; the correcting of difficulties—good management in getting breakfast; modifying plans as needed—special foods for father who has influenza; securing help as needed—information about painting the bathroom floor. Different kinds of projects will call for different kinds of records and reports, menus, costs, time records, improvements in methods tried. The girl should recognize records and reports as her scientific data to be used in measuring certain kinds of progress, and that certain conclusions, if made without them, are only guessing.

The last step is an evaluation of the work done, the way of working, the learning acquired in carrying it out, and the final product. Since it is school work, the teacher and the girls may find it desirable to agree on certain basic requirements to be met in regard to records, and the girls then be allowed to exercise their own individuality in other details of the final report. It is difficult to believe that a project is filling its maximum place as a medium of learning when the work goes on without a carefully thought out plan, without accurate records dealing with the major points of the project, and without a final summary, an evaluation, of the work. The type of records and reports most valuable will vary with the kind of project.

Home projects may be selected and planned to develop increased ability in carrying out the large responsibilities of home-

making, such as feeding or clothing the family. They may begin with small parts of the large function—preparing separate dishes, cooking single meals—to be followed by more difficult and complex activities until ability to handle the whole responsibility is achieved. Some teachers and girls do not realize the necessity for ceasing to emphasize practices already learned in order to allow time to work on the new learning needed.

A girl in discussing her home project work in foods showed an unusual awareness to the value of this type of work in making progress in learning. She had done a foods project as part of her home project program each year. The first year she had prepared suppers, planning the meals, acquiring skill in preparing simple dishes and learning to dovetail jobs to save time. The second year it was planning and packing lunches for her father who worked away from home and for four children in grades from the elementary through high school. Special emphasis was placed on planning lunches in relation to the other two meals of the day, saving time in preparing food, providing attractive and appetizing lunches. Most of the basic preparation was planned to fit into the cooking of the other two meals of the day. The girl cooked as part of her home project work only when new recipes were to be tried out or when a different type of prepared dish was being experimented with as a packed-lunch dish. The third year the foods project was planning all the meals and doing all the marketing. Again there was little cookery work. The girl, explaining the small amount of cookery in her project work the last two years, said that, with the practice in her first year and with the new things learned at school the succeeding years, she could work out almost any recipe, that she did cook at home when time permitted or the need arose, but not as home project work. She went on to say that to learn to plan meals successfully and to buy well meant a lot of study and practice, too, and that, if she had used much of her time doing the things she already knew how to do well, she wouldn't have progressed very far with the new things she wanted to learn.

A good home project program, like the good school program, should have both depth and breadth for the individual girl. Projects related to the various aspects should be carried out. They

should be progressive in learning, in ability to plan as well as to execute the plans. Small projects are good beginning places, but they should finally come to be seen as large pieces of work. A girl interested in buying food may continue her study of buying into other phases of work. A girl planning to save time—to utilize her resources to good advantage—in one project, may build on such learning through several additional projects. A home-improvement project, begun with certain definite jobs in view, may become a long-time piece of work to be continued after the home economics course is completed. The value of family projects was mentioned earlier.

Some projects should be selected to build up weak spots. If a girl has difficulty in keeping several jobs going at the same time, this factor should be taken into account in planning the project work. Special interests should influence the selection of other projects. The girls who have especially enjoyed working with color or doing unusual cookery should be encouraged to look for opportunities to do more with these interests outside school. If the special interest seems to have vocational possibilities, tryout opportunities should be looked for. This may be getting a tryout on the job, a chance to work with a dressmaker, or the planning of a home situation so as to give certain practice for the purpose of finding out whether the girl has real interest and talent.

Home project work is one of the means of realizing the goals of education and should be considered successful only as it does this. The opportunity to direct one's own learning is greater here than in work done at school, and an increase in this ability should be considered one of the marks of success. Indications of growth will be found in increased ability to apply school learning to the successful solving of personal and home problems, to make and execute a plan for a worth-while piece of work, to evaluate progress in learning. The amount of time spent on project work should not be accepted as a measure of its worth, nor can all projects be measured by the same standards. Individual differences enter into success in home project work even more than in classwork. Two girls may do the same work. For one, it may mean real development; for the other, it may be largely repetition of previous practices.

Home projects should be seen as part of the regular school work and should be graded by the same general standards. Certain aspects, self-direction and resourcefulness, should perhaps be weighted more heavily than at school. A score card with levels of achievement may be set up to help in evaluating the work, to see improvement in selecting and planning from project to project. The place of home project work in the total grade must be worked out by the individual school. Some teachers, giving a good deal of supervision to project work, rate it high. Others try to set up the school situation so that learning in project work shows up in school work and thus base the home economics grade almost entirely on the work done at school. A certain amount of home practice and home project work should be considered a part of the regular school work and should not be separated either in giving grades or credits. If the school can work out a plan by which girls who are doing a high quality of work in this minimum program and who are meeting other requirements can earn additional credit, this seems wholly desirable. Some schools, employing the teacher for a period beyond the regular school year, make no distinction between school and home experiences in the matter of credit, but they do allow additional credit to those students who extend participation beyond the school year.

Administrative Aspects of Home Project Work

It is essential that the superintendent and principal understand home project work and believe in it. They should be consulted in setting up the general plan for it, and told of the high spots in its development as work progresses. They should be urged to visit projects when possible and to talk to the girls about their work. The girls may need to take the initiative in arousing this interest. Provision by the school for travel, extension of the period of employment beyond the school year, and a special period scheduled for home project conferences depends almost entirely upon the belief of the superintendent and principal in the worth of the work. The allowing of time from classwork for home project work is an administrative problem and should be worked out only with the full understanding and approval of those in authority.

Additional credit and the conditions under which it may be earned depend upon their approval. Plans that include standards for evaluating work should be worked out with them. The records and reports of home project work to be filed permanently in the school should be acceptable to them.

Aside from these questions of business which are unquestionably administrative, the program needs the interest and encouragement of the superintendent and principal. They should be well enough acquainted with it to discuss it with parents, the general public and the school board. They should become sufficiently interested in it to talk with the girls about their work. School men who have been persuaded to take time to learn about home project work have been great assets in developing both pupil and public interest in this phase of home economics work.

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CHAPTER XVIII

THE LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

Much has been said and written about the good work done in the little old, red schoolhouse and the fine results secured by Mark Hopkins when he sat on one end of the log with a pupil on the other. Perhaps the little red schoolhouse is not so greatly overrated if one keeps clearly in mind how little it was expected to do. The home and the village combined to make the real educational environment for most children. They learned to live in the world just by being in it. The school taught the three R's. The home and the community taught how to earn a living, to live with other people, and to provide their own amusements by the very simple process of having children do these things. More is expected of the school today, and it needs more materials with which to do things.

The learning environment has both its social and physical aspects. The educational values in fine, wholesome relationships within the classroom and the importance of a feeling of friendliness between teachers and pupils and pupils and pupils as they work together cannot be overestimated. As students see educational experiences growing out of their needs and as they participate in the planning of these experiences, their feeling of unity with the department increases. These things make up the social environment. They have been discussed in other places.[1] This chapter will be concerned mainly with the physical environment, dealing only with the social as it influences the type of physical environment provided and the use made of it.

Guiding Principles in Planning the Environment

In no other phase of education is the learning environment as important as in home economics. Its real contribution is recog-

[1] See pp. 32-34.

nized by few school officials and not even by all teachers. Before providing a place to teach home economics or improving the one already available, basic beliefs concerning the place of the home economics environment in learning should be thought through and interpreted into working practices for a particular situation. Three points should be settled in determining criteria for measuring practices: the ideals considered important for homemaking; the standards, present or desirable and attainable with reasonable effort, for the homes of the community; and a definite notion as to what is good teaching in home economics so far as it affects the learning environment. A home economics department should be as highly personalized for a particular school and community as a home is for a particular family. This does not mean that schools and teachers will not learn from each other, but it does mean that what they learn will be interpreted for that situation. Many departments are as they are because no one thought through the relationship between space and equipment and attaining the goals of teaching.

Home economics has for its fundamental purpose educating for home living and homemaking. The ideals of home life should then be considered in planning the home economics department. Although the home itself is more than the house in which one lives or its furnishings, these things are an interpretation of what those who live there consider most desirable in homemaking. Ideals commonly agreed upon would be an artistic, attractive home, healthful and sanitary—a place where one might live in peace and comfort. The house and its furnishings would be easily cared for, the work done readily and efficiently; a place where housekeeping is kept in the background and yet carried out in such a way as to contribute to cheerful, wholesome living within the home. There should be space enough for the various activities of the household, for the members to live and work and play happily and harmoniously together, and to provide for personal interests, growth, and development.

With ideals such as these for homemaking, the home economics department should be built and equipped with a view to being artistic, attractive, comfortable, healthful, and sanitary. The rooms should be well lighted, heated, and ventilated and the floors

walls, and woodwork attractively finished. Wall hangings, pictures, and bowls for flowers will be considered as essential as the sewing machine and the cook stove. All the activities of a well-rounded course will be studied in making plans in order that all will be provided for. These activities will include maintaining health and caring for the sick; feeding and clothing a family; laundering; caring for and rearing children; managing the resources of the home; planning for the house, its care and furnishing; maintaining wholesome social relationships. Many things need not be purchased. Some can be borrowed for the few times needed. The home and the community have much to offer in achieving the objectives of home economics. The use of other pieces of equipment may be learned by visits to commercial concerns or homes. Adequate storage will be provided to contribute to ease of caring for the department, for protecting supplies and equipment and student materials, and for teaching system and order. Housekeeping tools and materials will be selected both for their value in caring for the department and for teaching purposes. Chairs and tables will be studied and different heights made available for the comfort of the workers.

Communities differ in their standards. Many levels of living will be found in most communities. Unless the teachings of home economics, direct or indirect, can be carried out in the present homes of the students, they will have little, if any, more value than a history or science lesson recited upon in class. They may even be miseducative in that they make students dissatisfied with their present homes without helping them make a beginning in improving them. Materials for teaching laundering in one school may mean an electric washing machine, mangle, and dryer. In another community, it should perhaps mean benches of a proper height, a suction hand plunger, working plans for providing shelter for outdoor washing. Lavender wisteria in a white milk pitcher or dogwood in a black stone crock may be as lovely as in a brass basket or pottery vase. The spotless luncheon cloth, made from a sack, may teach more to one group than a linen cloth with Italian hemstitching because there are sacks and spools of colored thread at home. Shining pots and pans from the five-and-ten-cent store, carefully selected and properly cared for, a clean

pine floor, shelves and closets in order, snowy-white cotton dish towels—if they represent what is attainable in the homes of the pupils—have a place in teaching homemaking far beyond that of the more expensive and elaborate furnishings and equipment which they could not hope to have.

Different points of view as to the goals of education will demand different types of space, furnishings, and equipment. The teacher who measures good teaching by pupils who have increasing ability to use techniques and knowledge gained in solving new problems now and later and to work with constantly greater independence will want a department that approximates desirable and attainable home standards and provides working conditions for both group and individual solving of problems. Unit kitchens will be seen as a medium for acquiring management abilities in food preparation, family-sized utensils for learning practices to be further perfected at home. Dishes will be selected for studying china as well as for serving food. Utensils will be of different sizes, materials, and styles. The wall hanging, even though an inexpensive cotton print, will be chosen both because it fits into the wall space and color scheme of the room and because it represents good design and color. It can then be used as illustrative material in teaching art principles or house furnishings, as well as to remind the girls daily that beauty is possible through the use of simple things carefully selected and properly used. The living area will be a place for some girls to acquire the beginning of skill in social graces; for rest and relaxation when the day's work is done a little before the dismissal bell; for learning to select, care for, and use different furniture and furnishings; for teaching home care of the sick; for serving food skilfully and attractively.

The students will help in planning the department in the beginning and the changes to be made in it from time to time. It will always be a growing department, to be changed, added to, or rearranged as new needs arise. The teacher does not see all girls doing the same thing at the same time, nor, on the other hand, does she see each one doing a different thing. She realizes that the school is set up for learning and that she is only one person. She realizes also that students must have the kind and amount of assistance they need from the teacher to keep moving ahead.

This means that in some instances the whole group can and must work together, that in others they will work in small groups. Only in this way will she have time for individual work when that is essential. This is necessary if students are not to fall into bad habits of loafing and indifference or are not to create disorder.

Local Factors Controlling the Learning Environment

Mention has already been made of the influence of the level of living within a community upon the type of space and furnishings provided. The money available, the size of classes, the length and nature of the courses, the opportunity for homework and for teacher contacts with the home, and the use to be made of the department other than for home economics will all affect the planning.

Little money for home economics may mean little money in the community, although this is not always true. Lack of money from whatever cause may limit decidedly the space to be provided, making only one room available for a living area when from other standpoints more space would be desirable. It may influence the kind and amount of furniture, furnishings, and equipment purchased. Funds may be such that a long-time building and equipping program to be carried out gradually is the only sensible plan for securing a satisfactory department in the end. This may mean building on additional space later, buying some equipment as temporary in order to have enough for working purposes, expecting it to be replaced in a short time.

The size of classes is an important factor in deciding upon the amount and kind of space and equipment needed if funds are limited. It is essential that they be adequate for girls to work under good learning conditions. If classes are small, one room for all laboratory purposes, the rest of the money being used for providing a complete living unit, may be the best disposition of the funds. More floor space is needed for unit kitchens than for the unit-desk arrangement. If the classes are large in relation to the size of the foods laboratory, it may be best to work out a combination unit-desk and unit-kitchen arrangement. The unit-desk plan can make use of a home stove and home equipment in a

compact space, although lacking much of the furniture and the arrangement of the unit kitchen.

If the girls are in the habit of working at home and have suitable conditions as well as time for it and if the teacher can visit them frequently, certain techniques can be carried out at home. This will reduce the need for providing a large number of certain types of equipment. Techniques may be presented at school, tried out by the girls sufficiently for understanding, and the real skills developed at home. Factors which will influence the use to be made of the home as a learning environment for home economics will include the working conditions in the home and the family attitude toward such work, the distance the students live from school, the length of the school day, the teaching load of the teacher, provisions made for transportation, and the attitude of school officials, family members, and teacher toward home visiting and supervision of home experiences.

The length of the course offered and the aspects of home economics emphasized will influence the kind and amount of space and equipment needed. A course with food preparation and clothing construction as major purposes calls for different equipment and more laboratory space than one which emphasizes certain other aspects. Neither type of work should be emphasized at the expense of the other. Uses to which the department may be put by other agencies will influence the planning. A large, rural, consolidated school, having no place to care for sick children or no satisfactory place for health examinations, will be more interested in a bedroom in the home economics department than a school where the needs are already adequately cared for. A school that has difficulty in borrowing furniture for school plays will be more interested in an attractively furnished living area than a school that can get it easily elsewhere.

The Space Provided for Home Economics

Home economics departments vary greatly in their location and the amount, kind, and arrangement of space provided. Some schools provide a separate building; others, a unit in a building set aside for boys' and girls' activities; still others, a unit in the

main building. The space in the main building may be on any floor and is all too often still in the basement. The amount and kind of space varies from the one-room department to a complete unit, including a living area with living room, dining room, bedroom, bath, home kitchen, and laundry, and foods and clothing laboratories.

In most schools today, the best place for the home economics department is either a first-floor wing in the main building or a separate cottage. In either of these locations, it should be easy to keep the unique needs of home economics in mind in planning the department. These needs mean a department planned and furnished in the spirit of the home, keeping in mind always, however, that the department is not a home but a place for learning those things which students need to learn and which the school can teach about personal and family living. The peculiar physical needs of the department will have their influence on the size and arrangement of rooms, height of ceilings, type and arrangement of windows, wall space in relation to furniture and equipment, entrance, and yard planning and planting.

The home economics cottage has become increasingly popular. The first cottages were often two laboratories, put up as a separate building because there was not room enough in the main building. Such an arrangement would not be called a cottage in the modern use of the term. Most cottages today combine some provision for large-group laboratory work with a living area. A few, however, are built much like a family home, making no provision for laboratory work other than in the regular rooms of the house. The amount of space given to the living area, and the rooms included in this, and the number, kind, and size of laboratories provided vary with the number of students to be accommodated in the building at any one time. A cottage has certain decided advantages. It can be planned and furnished to duplicate the home situation at school both inside and out more nearly than any other arrangement. This adds greatly to its value as a teaching medium. The relative freedom of home economics work does not interfere with more formal classes. It can be used to better advantage in after-school hours. It is easier to hold social affairs which are to be attended by visitors from outside and is more accessible to the

community for community use. The cottage is less expensive than the same amount of space provided in the main building, and this is frequently the determining factor with school officers in deciding to build a cottage. Many schools with a small enrolment have remodeled dwelling houses into attractive and entirely satisfactory home economics departments.

These separate buildings, however, run the risk of having certain disadvantages. The department, unless the principal and teacher are very careful, may tend to become cut off from the general activities of the school. When the weather is bad, classes have difficulty in getting back and forth and in severe rains may not be able to pass at all. A satisfactory way of caring for wraps presents a special problem. Not needing them in the main building, girls may expose themselves because they do not want to get them to go to this one class. Janitor service and heating may present special problems. Frequently the teacher is held responsible for locking up the building at the end of the day. Protection of furnishings may be difficult. In spite of these possible disadvantages, however, the specially planned cottage represents the best type of provision for home economics in the small school in a climate where disagreeable weather is at a minimum.

In the large school or in those sections having bad weather through several months of the school year, the best place for the home economics department is a first-floor wing in the main building. If this is planned with a modern home economics program in mind, it *can* have all the advantages of the separate cottage and none of its disadvantages except that it will cost more. For this to be done, however, the school officials must be willing to have the architect think with the teacher and the students in terms of function first. Windows will then be different in size and arrangement from the rest of the building. The ceiling will be of house, not school, height. Spacing of walls, style of doors, and materials and finishes of floors, walls, and woodwork will not follow the usual school pattern. Storage will be specially designed. The wing may need to be widened in order that the department will not resemble a railroad tenement apartment.

A first-floor department, wherever located, has the advantage of being convenient for bringing in supplies and disposing of

waste. It may be cheaper because of the plumbing, gas, and electrical connections needed. It is also easy to have visitors without disturbing the rest of the school, and guests do not wander over the building when social affairs are held in out-of-school hours. On the other hand, if the building has more than one floor, rising odors of cooking food may be very annoying throughout the upper floors.

As buildings are now planned and built, a department located on the second or top floor is assured better light and ventilation. Classes are disturbed less by the passing of other classes, and, since home economics often has longer periods and smaller classes, there are fewer pupils passing to and from the upper floors. Unless the flooring is nearly soundproof, however, the freedom allowed home economics groups may disturb the work going on in rooms underneath.

Many schools have found it desirable to build a special building, combining special activities for boys and girls. This may mean industrial arts or agriculture for boys and home economics for girls. Such an arrangement has many advantages in the rural school. Frequently all girls take home economics, and most of the boys, if not all, take agriculture. They may have many joint interests connected with their daily work which make close contact desirable. In addition, the building may become the center for certain aspects of social life for the entire school both in and out of school hours; it may be the place in which they work together for the betterment of home and community living. Such a building can be planned, although few have yet been so planned, to provide the same homelike quarters as the cottage or the department located in the first-floor wing.

Under no circumstances should the department be located in a basement or even partially below ground. In the early days when home economics had not yet become established, unused rooms in any part of the building, always the most undesirable for any school activity and frequently located in the basement, were turned over to it. They were never satisfactory. Some school officials have not yet seen the relation between the place for teaching home economics and the results attained. Such people are still willing for departments to be located in undesirable places. Fre-

quently excavated only on one side, basement rooms are never well ventilated. The natural light entering at so low an angle is not sufficient at any time. Dust and rain come in or get on the windows, interfering further with the lighting and making the department hard to keep clean. Such rooms are usually low, often damp, have a stale odor, and are difficult to keep free from insects and mice. If a central heating system is in use, the radiators or steam pipes are usually suspended from the ceiling, adding still further to the general unattractiveness of the place. Even the view outside is undesirable—people's feet as they pass by, the underpinning of buildings, an occasional patch of sky. No home economist would advocate for any school purpose some of the basement rooms assigned to home economics. Of all high-school departments, however, with the possible exception of the library, basement rooms are least desirable for home economics and least in line with the purposes the department is set up to achieve.

Whether the building be a cottage or a combination building, its style should fit into the community, be a part of the natural setting, neither a transplanted style from another region nor a smaller edition of the institutionalized school building. Home economics has made a good deal of progress in recent years in making the department more functional. What has been done, however, has not reached nearly enough schools yet. In addition, the hominess planned has tended to become institutionalized rather than personalized for the individual school. Studies need to be made, experiments carried out and evaluated to the end that a dynamic and functioning philosophy of the learning environment in relation to the teaching of home economics is developed. A few elementary schools are being and have been planned with function in mind. The home economist and those who would plan for home economics can learn much from them.[2]

The amount of space needed is influenced by the kind of activities to be carried out and the size of classes. A number of schools have set up the general laboratory, providing in one room for the carrying out of a wide variety of different activities at the same time. This means that some girls may be preparing food; others,

[2] Carleton Washburne, *A Living Philosophy of Education*, pp. 5-8. The John Day Company. 1940.

working in the laundry. Some may be making curtains for the department or for their own rooms at home. Others may be sewing on a dress or playing with a small group of children in the living room. Some may be planning a meal that they will prepare the next day or figuring the cost of one prepared the previous day. Such a laboratory may contain one, two, or three unit kitchens and a laundry at one end and a living unit at the other. The in-between space may then be set up for group discussion, clothing work, refinishing furniture, and the like. Special activities may overflow from one place into another, depending upon how many are engaged in the activity and which additional space will best serve the purpose. Regardless of the nature of the units taught or the size of the class, one room will not be satisfactory unless ample and suitable storage is available. Much illustrative material will be needed: pieces of household equipment, house furnishings, pictures, vases, dishes; articles for the care of the sick and for first aid; toys and play equipment for children. Reference material of various kinds will also be needed. Both illustrative and reference materials should be well cared for and easily accessible.

The one room planned for all phases of work will serve only for the very small class. A group of twelve to fifteen will be cared for best if there is one general-purpose laboratory and a living area. Where enrolment is large and there are two or more teachers, most schools prefer to set up separate foods and clothing laboratories. All students in a class will then work in the one laboratory or the living area, carrying out activities having to do with food or clothing study or of a nature easily worked out in such a setting. This still allows for great variation in what the students do within a class. Teachers in such set-ups work out their plans jointly so as to exchange laboratories as needed for their groups and to share without conflict in using the living area.

Provisions for departments having only one teacher show a definite shift toward a general-purpose laboratory and a living area. The latter may be one room or several, depending upon the number of girls in home economics, the type of community, and the resources available. There is also a definite trend in all departments to see that all the space is used as continuously as possible in so far as teacher time and good learning conditions will

permit. There are no show places. The entire department has a lived-in appearance. Students are expected and feel free to go wherever their work or interests take them.

The amount of space having been agreed upon, the arrangement must be worked out. A number of points need to be considered: the arrangement of rooms in relation to each other; a separate entrance to each area in addition to the connecting doors; the use of certain parts of the department for other purposes than the work of home economics classes—the bedroom for first aid or an examination room for the nurse. Special problems come up within each room: the different activities to be carried out, the size and arrangement of unit kitchens, the location of the chimney for the range, the most usable place for the sinks. Shall there be one really desirable kitchen next to the dining room and the other unit kitchens only partially furnished according to home standards? Is it best in this particular school to have the laundry as part of a larger kitchen or as a separate unit? Should the pressing and ironing equipment be in the foods or clothing laboratory? The storage in connection with the foods laboratory may have an excellent place for cleaning supplies, but when thought of in relation to their use throughout the department it may seem most inconvenient. Is a place needed for pupils' wraps and books?

The arrangement of the living area presents certain problems. It should be located where it can be of most service to all the activities of the department. The wall space should allow for attractive arrangement of furniture and furnishings. One large room may answer the purpose better than several smaller rooms. Such a room permits fairly large social gatherings, a home-nursing demonstration to a large group, practical lessons on rearrangement of furniture.

The unit-kitchen arrangement can provide the working conditions most closely approximating those of the home kitchen. Small groups work together. Management theories become practices. Much confusion in the classroom is eliminated and time saved. If the size of the foods laboratory in relation to the size of classes does not permit all unit kitchens, then two or three should be set up and the rest of the space arranged in unit desks.

The clothing laboratory need not duplicate home conditions

although this is sometimes used as the reason for having the sewing at school done in the living room and bedroom of a cottage instead of providing a laboratory. Restaurants advertise "home cooking," but no dressmaking shop ever advertised its "homemade" dresses. Everything possible should be done to eliminate those undesirable qualities which have caused the term homemade, applied to clothing, to be derogatory. Better working conditions will contribute to improvement in quality of work. The light, artificial and natural, should be such that there will be no difficulty in sewing well without eye strain. This means enough light for general illumination and, if ceilings are high, droplights over tables and machines. Adequate and satisfactory places for keeping work under construction include poles and hangers for garments and sewing boxes large enough to hold the work without its being crushed or folded into tight bundles. Girls are frequently not as careful to press as they work because there is no good place to keep their garments without wrinkling from one day to the next. Pressing facilities, well lighted and easily accessible, should be adequate for the group. If electricity is not available, a small oil hot plate for heating the irons should be near the pressing boards. Fitting should be planned for, the full-length mirror hung in a good light, privacy provided for dressing and undressing, and a rod with hangers for holding the girls' clothes while being fitted.

Certain problems, common to the department as a whole, enter into the planning of the home economics unit or building. The location of blackboards, bulletin boards, and display cases in relation to usableness is important. The amount of light needed, the number and location of wall outlets for electrical conveniences, cross ventilation in a foods laboratory, screening in a steel-constructed building, adequate water supply, and garbage disposal all present problems. Decisions must be reached as to wall, woodwork, and floor finishes, the heating of the department. The exposure of the rooms will determine whether cool or warm colors are best. Colors for walls which have proved satisfactory over a period of years are cream, buff, and French gray, the latter a green-gray. A flat finish reflects less light than an enamel one. Woodwork in the foods laboratory may be finished in washable paints, as in a home kitchen, and the rest of the department stained. Pine panel-

ing makes an unusually attractive wall finish and if waxed, improves in appearance and texture with time. A number of departments in various places are experimenting with different materials and finishes for walls. Smoke and dust in some cities and sections of the country demand walls that are washable or a finish which does not show soil easily.

Floor finishes are important. Under no circumstances should a cement floor without a top covering be considered acceptable. Linoleum of a good quality makes a satisfactory floor throughout. It is, however, expensive. If, it is at all possible, it should be used in the foods laboratory. Squares for the unit kitchens and runners for the passages are less expensive than a solid covering and have the added advantage of being movable, thus preventing excessive wear in one place. Very thin, hot linseed oil or the best quality of floor oil, put on sparingly, is a good finish for new soft woods. Any finish such as varnish or paint, which coats the wood, wears off quickly and is scarcely worth the trouble and expense of putting it on. Hard woods may be waxed. In fixing over a department, planning should begin with the floor as it provides the background for the entire room.

The foods area should be completely screened, the whole department if it can be afforded. Roller screens of a good quality are available for steel-constructed buildings. The entire department should be heated. Cooking stoves are unsatisfactory for heating the foods laboratory, besides being an expensive means of doing it. If the living area is not heated, its use is very much limited during certain seasons. Unheated, it becomes an expensive unit in the department, in addition to limiting the teaching which can be done in certain seasons. If the home economics department is outside the main building, it should have its own toilet facilities. A bathroom with shower and/or tub in connection with the living area may be extremely useful in setting standards for personal cleanliness with some students and in providing others, whose standards are entirely acceptable but whose home facilities are limited, with the means of keeping clean. Teachers in schools with plenty of hot water frequently have the students sign up daily for the privilege of taking baths during a study period.

Some place should be provided for the entire group to come to

gether for class discussion. This may be class planning of an activity or evaluation of work which has been done. Informal groupings should be possible—the type depending upon the need. A study or reading center is also desirable. This may be a corner in the living area or in the clothing laboratory. In most situations no more than two or three girls will ever want to use it at one time. It, however, demands good light, comfortable chairs, and a place for working materials close at hand. This may mean bringing in books related to a particular activity for the time being. Standard cookbooks and other books and bulletins having to do with food study should be in the foods laboratory so that information desired, other than that in the basic source books, may be checked as they work. Teachers are aware that their teaching will be effective largely as students continue to study after their formal schooling is over—and yet few make study a natural and pleasant part of working in the department.

Each teacher needs her own work center. Many things she has to do can be done in that part of the department used by students. Certain aspects of her work, however, call for a place where privacy is possible—and this should be more than a desk in a laboratory. Students frequently want to talk to the teacher privately or uninterrupted by others. The teacher may want to talk to a student. Parents may come for a conference. The teacher may have to leave an uncompleted task when school begins in the morning or at the end of the day. She should be able to pick it up again without having had to put it away and get it out again. She will have books for her own use, files of materials which should be close at hand. She may want a place for student work that is turned in at the end of a unit. The place need not be too large. The teacher will not want to keep everything in it or do all that she does around the department there. It should, however, be large enough for privacy when she wants it as a person or when working with others, and it should be homey and attractive.

Storage is more important and deserves more attention in planning the department than it frequently gets. The smaller the place provided for student activities, the more space in proportion will be needed for storage. Storage will be needed to take care of furniture, furnishings, equipment not in use regularly; foodstuffs and

supplies of various kinds; cleaning equipment and supplies; student wraps and books, uniforms, work boxes, garments under construction; finished work as turned in; illustrative materials, clippings, bulletins, reference books, magazines. If no nursery school or play school is available for observation and participation with small children, a department may wish to collect a limited amount of play and work equipment so that small children may be brought into the department for short periods of time. If this is done, the materials will need to be stored when not in use. Provision for teaching home care of the sick may demand extra storage if no bedroom is available. The good school increases its illustrative material in every way possible. Some of this should be extra bowls, pictures, hangings and other decorative objects so that students may change things about as they wish to, dress up the department for special occasions, or show their own taste or creativeness at other times.

Furnishing a Department

The money available, size of classes, and number and kind of rooms are frequently the determining factors in equipping a department. Much more important points are the activities to be carried out which call for furniture, furnishings, and equipment; the attention to be given to selection, use, care, and cost of furniture, furnishings, and equipment in the teaching; and the contribution of equipment in the department both to the comfort of the worker and to more efficient ways of doing things. Trends in the community should also be considered. A study may show little use of electricity, but that may be because it has only recently been made available. Care is a factor of great importance in selecting furnishings and the kind of care that will be needed in that community and how it is to be provided in the school. Many departments look most attractive when first built or refurnished, but can only be kept that way by constant cleaning of windows, walls, and floors and by washing of curtains. From the standpoint of comfort of the worker, the teacher is concerned with heights of working surfaces in all laboratories, style and heights of chairs in the sewing room, stools for the kitchen and the ironing board,

table finishes that rest the eye, neither reflecting much light nor having a design that is annoying.

A department should represent the personality of the community at its best. Entirely too many departments lack character. They could be in any town in any section of the country. An individual teacher's own personal taste should not, however, dominate the planning. Many sections of the country have special crafts which belong natively to the people of that section or which have been developed there. In spite of this, the pictures and decorations may be just like those in every other school. There are departments in sections making some of the loveliest pottery in this country that do not have a piece. The same may be said of places where lovely homespun articles, metal ware, and furniture are made.

The color scheme needs to be worked out early; a soft background into which a variety of colors will tone is much more satisfying over a period of years than rooms done in a decided green, rose, or blue. Bright colors may be secured in more temporary things or in articles which will be used only a portion of the time. A most attractive school living room had a dull green davenette, a red velour chair, a brass bowl on the table, walnut furniture, all blending beautifully because of the small-patterned rug and the softly shaded design in the draperies with predominating brown and gold background, but having enough green and red to make these colors possible in selecting furnishings. This room taught many girls that they could rearrange the furniture which they had at home and make a satisfactory long-time plan for improving their living room, adding a piece at a time instead of having to buy everything at once. They did not feel as some girls do while studying home economics that nothing at home is good because it is not new or does not match in color or style. Accessories that add to the appearance of the department and which may be changed about or put away for a time are as worth while in teaching home economics as the more utilitarian scissors and pots and pans.

If the department has several rooms, the windows may have different finishes and different materials—glass curtains or draperies alone for some, and a combination of the two types of hangings for others. Whatever is selected should be suitable for

the type of window, size of room, and the other furnishings, and, in addition, it should look well when viewed from an adjoining room. These points should never be sacrificed to get illustrative material. Attractiveness of the department inside and out should be a definite goal. Window finishes as a rule should be decorative, which usually means draperies instead of glass curtains. If a room is unusually bright, glass curtains may not shut out too much light. Draperies may be hung so as to be pulled across the window for evening affairs if this seems desirable. Shades, hung in the middle to be raised or lowered, or Venetian blinds are better for controlling light than either draperies or curtains. In buying draperies, teachers would do well to investigate the dress goods department. The materials there will be less expensive and less durable, which is as it should be. Draperies that must be used eight or ten years for the department to get its money's worth will look extremely shabby, and everyone be tired of them long before that time.

The equipment for the foods laboratory should copy as far as possible home conditions. This is valuable not only in teaching the preparation of food but also in teaching about equipment. The fuel of the community should be used, the stoves have attached ovens, the utensils be of family size. Unit kitchens should be furnished at different economic levels with different kinds, sizes, shapes, and materials—utensils of wood, blocked tin, granite, aluminum, glass, steel, porcelain, cake pans with removable bottoms, sauce pans that will make double boilers, baking utensils of glass, tin, crockery, and granite. It will take more time to equip such a department. The things needed cannot be bought in a day or in one place nor can orders be given for six of this and a dozen of that. The increased scope of the teaching possibilities of a department equipped in this manner, however, will repay for the time it takes to do it. Reaching conclusions as to what to get will make excellent teaching problems. Such a scheme, however, has little place for the especially made home economics furniture and equipment as it is now planned and built.

Deciding on labor-saving equipment is always an important matter. Many inexpensive devices and pieces of equipment fall in this class and are within the reach of any department. Dish

drainers, egg beaters, cake racks, pot lifters, apple corers, mop wringers, mats for hot dishes all contribute to easier and more efficient ways of doing work. The amount and kind of electrical equipment to be purchased should be governed not only by the community standards but also by the frequency of use within the department, difficulty of learning to operate, the cost of upkeep, and the other needs of the department. The girl who can cook well on a coal or oil range and can regulate such an oven to bake to perfection will have little trouble with the help of a book of instructions in teaching herself to use an electric or gas stove. On the other hand, a community, doing the laundry work at home and having electricity but not using electric washing machines, dryers, and mangles, may profit greatly by putting such equipment in the home economics department. No large, expensive pieces should ever be secured, however, at the cost of the small utensils needed by every girl.

Linen, silver, and dishes for serving the food prepared are as essential as the utensils for preparing it. In selecting these things, different kinds of cloth, silver, and china, as well as different patterns, may be selected for the several unit kitchens, providing at the same time illustrative material for teaching purposes. Fads in furnishings should be avoided. Old furniture of good wood, if it can be secured and refinished, adds to the attractiveness of the department and has teaching value as well. Maple furniture is inexpensive and if well made will be especially satisfactory where simplicity is the keynote. "In neighborhoods where the girls come from homes with comfortable incomes, it is important that the school shall offer a situation which will make pupils respect what they are doing."[3]

In a department where maximum use is desired, many pieces of furniture will have to serve a dual purpose. This calls for a good deal of ingenuity in the planning. A table of proper height for cooking work is high enough but usually not large enough for cutting out in clothing work. It will be about the right size for a sewing table but too high for that purpose. If the dining-room table is used for sewing, it soon becomes marred unless fabric

[3] W. H. Johnson, "The Home Arts Laboratory in the Chicago High Schools." *Journal of Home Economics*, 31:3. January, 1939.

covers or linoleum squares are provided. Substantial folding card tables are now available and may be used for many purposes. Drop leaves may be used to increase table space for special purposes. Chairs present a serious problem in any department. So many are uncomfortable. The best folding chairs of the usual type are not comfortable for more than a short time. Lap boards of composition board are more convenient and take up less space than chairs with an arm for writing. School furniture and equipment should, in general, be more durable under hard wear than that purchased for a home. This is one reason why many school officials prefer commercial school rather than home furniture.

No common plan can be set up for the home economics department. Each represents an individual problem to be worked through to its own solution. Long-time planning and constant care seem essential. Many departments are remodeled and refurnished, everything made spic and span and then apparently forgotten. Left to itself, a department soon gets a down-at-the-heel look in no more than four or five years. Guiding principles, interpreted into consistent practices, give the only satisfactory answer. Experiences of others will help, but these should be studied intelligently and not used as patterns to be imitated. It does seem safe to say that some of the criticisms of administrators as to the cost of home economics might be eliminated if the department did represent such a positive teaching force as is suggested here.

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CHAPTER XIX

MANAGEMENT IN HOME ECONOMICS TEACHING

The cost of education is one of the constantly recurring topics of discussion, and the cost of home economics with its laboratories and laboratory equipment and comparatively small classes often seems to come in for more than its share of such discussion. Maintaining and managing a home economics department successfully combine many of the features of managing a home and running a business provided both of them are well done. It must be financed; its needs planned for; its records kept. The rooms and equipment must be maintained in good working order; its human resources—teacher time and experience, pupil interest and energy—used to good advantage. One of the most fruitful ways of teaching good management is for pupils to work in a well-organized, smooth-running department, to see resources studied thoughtfully and used wisely, to see before them constantly in operation the management principles which they are studying. Still more effective is to use these management problems as teaching problems, for the girls to participate in planning what needs to be done and how and when it is to be done.

Financial Management

Money must be provided for equipment and furnishings, replacement and repairs, and materials with which to work. Few teachers have the opportunity to equip a department. The problem of adding new pieces of equipment, things not bought at first, and the replacing of worn-out equipment and furnishings is ever-present, however.

The teacher needs to know early the amount of money available, when it will be available, the responsibility if any which she has for securing it, and the manner in which purchases are to be made. The money for equipment and maintenance may

be a part of the regular school budget. This procedure recognizes home economics as a part of the legitimate expense of education and is decidedly the best plan.

A second means of financing the department is by the payment of special student fees. This may keep some students from taking home economics, and since the fee is usually kept as low as possible the amount often is inadequate, causing work to be crippled and upkeep neglected. Sometimes the expense is charged to the lunchroom. This plan has several undesirable features. If the lunchroom is a part of the home economics department, managed by a home economics-trained person on a businesslike basis, and she understands that the lunchroom must contribute a certain amount to maintain the instruction given in home economics, this may work out fairly well. It always means, however, that food will either have to be sold at a higher price than otherwise or be inferior in quality. When this plan is followed, the money should pass through the school financial office to be credited to the home economics department. The cost of the department and the lunchroom should be kept separate. Bills for teaching home economics should not be charged to the lunchroom or money doled out to it.

The most undesirable financing system is to leave it to the department either to earn money or to have the pupils bring supplies from home. Maintenance is always inadequate. Too much time is spent in planning for it or in earning it. Girls promise things their parents cannot afford or they forget to bring what they have promised. Parents misunderstand why it is being done. Some bear more than their share of expense and others are hurt because they are unable to help more. No department should have to depend upon this method for its upkeep.

There are, however, a number of legitimate and desirable ways of adding to the financial resources of the department or, if not in adding to them, in providing more experiences for students. In the study of food preparation, meals may be served to various groups, food sold to the lunchroom, or special orders filled for people in the community. Some teachers prefer to use these opportunities as a means for giving students practice in working individually or with larger quantities or as service to other groups, and not as ways of making money. One teacher, who had an un-

usually fine recipe for fruit cake, taught the students to make it as a part of their regular work. As a home economics club, the girls then made cakes on order in their free periods and before and after school. They paid a small amount for fuel in addition to buying their own materials and had the rest for club use. Another club made candied grapefruit and orange peel and special kinds of candy.

A budget should be made out early in the year. A teacher who has been on the job before will make out a tentative budget the preceding spring. The new teacher must take time to look over the department to discover needs, to study expenditures of the previous year, to plan the work in its broader outlines, and to get some notion of enrolment in the various classes before making a budget. If two funds are available, one for new equipment and replacement and one for maintenance, each should be budgeted separately. When funds are limited, the everyday running of the department should not be sacrificed in order to save money for buying special equipment or furnishings.

Some school officials prefer that the bills run about the same each month. This, then, means studying the distribution of phases of work and buying ahead at certain periods. Food purchases constitute the largest items for maintenance unless food materials are provided by the cafeteria or the prepared products are sold to them. The large department will have food classes running all the time. The small one probably will not. To keep the expenses about the same each month means putting in magazine subscriptions and buying illustrative material for color or fabric study when the food purchases are low. If repairs come out of this fund, machines and oil stoves may be put in order ahead of time. The needs of the entire program should be balanced and a tentative plan for spending worked out. Materials for art, child development, home management, health, family relationships, although not as expensive as food materials, are equally important. The first budget may be general, setting aside a certain amount for magazines, upkeep of the department, food supplies, applied art, and the other phases. General as this may be, it should be based on thoughtful planning, a consideration of past expenditures, needs of the department, and new ventures the teacher may wish to try out. No matter how

limited the funds, a small amount should be left free to care foi changes in plans or for emergencies.

Ways of handling money for the department fall into two general classes. One is to charge purchases to the school system; the other is for the teacher to pay the bills and be reimbursed. In the first plan, bills showing the goods or services purchased and the person making the transaction are rendered to the department at the time of purchase. Final bills are then sent to the department or school at regular intervals, usually monthly. These the teacher checks against her bills and approves for payment before sending them to the financial department for payment. In the second plan, the teacher presents a summary statement of purchases, accompanied by receipted bills, to the financial office at stated intervals for reimbursement, also usually monthly. One important advantage in the first plan is that the accounts are a charge against the school and not the department or the teacher. The most serious disadvantage is that the teacher is limited in the places of making purchases. The official paying the bills does not want too many small accounts coming in. This disadvantage is removed in the second plan. On the other hand, it lacks the main advantage of the first plan. A desirable combination plan may be worked out, large accounts being charged and small ones handled through a petty-cash account or carried by the teacher who is reimbursed later.

Whatever the plan used, it should be set up and handled in a businesslike way. Bills should show clearly not only the amount and nature of the purchase but also the date of purchase, the person or firm from which the purchase was made, for whom made, and the person transacting the business. The bill should read, "6 pounds flour, 21¢," not "meat, 24¢" or "groceries, $2.35." Bills paid should be receipted, giving date of payment and the names of the persons making and receiving payment.

Financial Records

Some type of financial record book should be kept. This should carry an accurate account of funds available, the plan for spending, and the actual expenditures made. A looseleaf book is not satisfac-

tory since important records may easily be lost. The record of funds available should give source of funds and amounts. Money earned or received as a gift should be entered as well as money provided from fees or regular school funds. Information needed concerning purchases includes the date, item, person or firm from whom the purchase was made, and the cost. Expenditures for furniture, furnishings, and equipment should be kept separate from maintenance, but the same data are desirable. Usually it is desirable to know the cost of instruction for each class and for the major aspects taught during the year, especially if major changes are being made in the work. Some schools want more detailed information about costs.

A department should run as near the economic level of those being taught as is consistent with good teaching. It is not at all difficult to set up the record book to keep expenditures by classes, units, or phases of work. Again it may be desirable to keep an account by merchants, to know what was purchased and how much was spent at any one store. When food is provided in part from the homes, a section should be set aside for entering such items with an estimated price for each article. This will enable the teacher to calculate more accurately the complete cost of the department. An envelop pasted in the back of the book may be used as a temporary file for receipted bills. Each bill should be numbered chronologically and the number recorded with the account when it is entered. This simplifies checking if it is ever necessary. To know the exact cost of the department, unless gas and electricity are on separate meters, the teacher must secure an estimate of the amount of these items and of janitor service charged against home economics. The total cost of the year must include general upkeep of building and deterioration of building and equipment. The teacher will need help from the principal or superintendent in arriving at a fair charge for the more general items.

Subscriptions to magazines should have a special entry, giving the name and address of the magazine, the address to which the magazine is to be sent, the person or firm from whom ordered, the period of the subscription, and the date of expiration. Some

schools provide a travel fund for home visiting. When this is available, the teacher should find out the conditions for using it, the charge allowed, and the method of securing reimbursement. When such a fund is provided, a record of money spent for travel should be kept.

The teacher should find out at the beginning of the year whether there are unpaid bills charged to the department from the previous year. Old accounts should not be a charge against the funds budgeted for the new year. Moreover, unpaid bills may lessen the ease of securing credit. The teacher needs also to know what items may be charged against school funds to avoid criticism concerning the use of money. A bill showing 5 yards of print with no explanation takes on an entirely different meaning with the additional information, "ten ½-yard pieces of different colors for use in color and fabric study." Some schools furnish stock materials —thread, buttons, tape, etc. Others make quantity purchases of staple supplies to sell to the pupils—pins by the pound, bolts of muslin or prints, boxes of thread. The teacher needs to know the custom concerning such practices and the method of keeping the accounts. The money handled in the department should be recorded accurately both as to the amount and source of funds available and the expenditures made. More than this, there should be no possibility of any question's arising as to the nature of the expenditures.

The inventory should be included in the financial record book. This needs to be checked at the beginning of school and revised at the end of the year. If one is not available from the previous year, a new one should be made. If articles on the old inventory are missing at the opening of school, an attempt should be made to find them. If this cannot be done, either a new inventory should be prepared, omitting these articles, or a list of the missing articles should be submitted to the principal to be attached to the record in his files. A duplicate copy with his signature, signifying recognition of the loss, should be put in the home economics files. A form may be worked out to be used over a number of years, thus saving time as well as making it easier to compare from year to year.

Instructional Records and Reports

The number and the exact nature of the instructional records and reports to be kept by the teacher vary with the school system, the size of the department, and the interest and inclination of the teacher. In the main, regardless of the number, they fall into three groups: records and reports concerning students, current work, and summaries of the year's work.

The pupil records always include a classbook, giving the roll, attendance, grades, and a final grade for the term or year. In addition the teacher will find it useful to keep an individual record for each pupil, on which she places facts of interest and value in home economics: the parents' names, home address, father's occupation, size of family, age of children in the family, work done in the home, health conditions, and many other things. This should be a cumulative record of pertinent information enriched by teacher understanding of the girl herself, her problems, and the solutions reached. It should be kept throughout the time the girl is taking home economics. Records of out-of-school use of home economics instruction and of home practice and home projects enable the teacher and the girl to check easily from term to term the breadth of the application of school learning being made at home. Pupil-progress cards for checking accomplishments also have a place. Most schools find it desirable to use simple questionnaires or check lists at various times during the year. Many teachers keep some written work of students—menus planned at the beginning of the year, personal accounts kept for a month, suggestions for handling behavior problems with young children. A folder for each pupil enrolled in home economics is the simplest and most convenient way of filing all such pupil data. The teacher and the school really concerned with the value of the instruction being given, will make plans to follow up the pupils after the period of formal instruction is over. A sampling of the group for study from year to year will probably be adequate.

Records kept throughout the year may be in the form of monthly reports, giving brief statements of the work done daily or a summary of problems presented during the period. Facts concerning

enrolment, money spent, home project conferences, and home visiting may be included. Such forms are usually set up by the administrative system and not by the teacher. Some states have a legal requirement that the superintendent must have on file a monthly report from each teacher before the teacher's name may be placed on the payroll for that period. This report is usually brief and, though recording a certain type of the teacher's activities, does not give a true picture of what has actually been taught.

A summary statement of the work of each large unit should be on file in the department. In preparing this summary, the teacher takes stock of how nearly the goals set up for the period have been reached. This also shows the beginning place for work in that phase when it is offered again. It should give points to be stressed as other problems are studied and thus help in avoiding needless repetition. Special diets may be taught in either food or health study, children's clothing in child development or clothing, but such materials should not be presented as new learning in both places. Too few records that indicate the actual accomplishments are kept, and as a result there is repetition, reteaching even to the third and fourth time. If the discussion of children's traits in connection with a study of personal development is intended merely to arouse interest in the study of child development later, the teacher should be certain that the discussion stops there, instead of touching on all the problems in this area so that the pupils have a hazy notion of a number of things and think they know all about the traits of children when the subject comes up for serious study. The teacher loses the interest of the pupils, and the pupils lose the feeling that each day's lesson is important—or perhaps never acquire it. Records which give a clear picture of the ground covered and the results attained will be invaluable here. They would also tell the new teacher what has been covered and how much she can expect the pupils to know as ground work for the new term.

The annual report should be a summary of the year's work, financial, statistical, and descriptive. Its preparation should serve three purposes: an evaluation of the work by the teacher herself; putting before the officials, the superintendent, principal, and board the accomplishments of the year; and the filing of an official

record. It should be a true picture interestingly written. The descriptive part should give the goals for the year, the activities used in carrying them out, and the real results attained. The report should deal with the work presented, improvements in the department, supervised home experiences, home economics club, contribution to general and community activities, publicity, special problems of the year, deficiencies in the present program, and recommendations for the next year. It need not be long. It should, however, be thoughtfully prepared.

The financial report should show the money used in the department, the source of funds, and the general uses to which these funds were put. An evaluation of the financial situation may well accompany this report. This should include financial weaknesses in the program and recommendations as to attainable goals for the following year. The statistical part of the report should show total enrolment and the dropping out during the year; classes offered, giving enrolment for each; phases offered, with length of time given to each; home projects started and completed, number of homes visited and total number of visits, distance traveled; distribution of projects in relation to different phases of work; adult classes taught, work offered, place taught, and enrolment; joint work with agriculture or industrial-arts teacher.

The records to be kept and the reports to be made should be thought through early in the year. This means finding out the requirements of the system, planning other records and reports that seem worth while, arranging for securing and keeping the data, and planning for a time to make the reports. An annual report, prepared as an afterthought to the year's work, has little value. A file for keeping the business records is desirable. If a commercial file cannot be afforded at that time, a wooden box with a hinged top, the inside the size of a file drawer, may be made. This may be placed on a wooden base, bringing it up to a convenient height. Teachers have used apple crates successfully as temporary files. Such provision should be regarded as temporary only, however. One drawer of the teacher's desk should be kept for current business materials, a folder for unanswered letters, another for the monthly report and other unfinished work.

Department Housekeeping

Just as in a home much replacement is made necessary by lack of foresight and prevention of misuse, so it happens in the home economics department. One or two doormats, properly used and cared for when the department is outside the main building, will save much wear on the floor finish. Sewing machines, protected from the sun and from water from bowls of flowers, will keep good-looking tops for years. If there is no other place to put the machines, attractive protective covers can be provided. Artistic pads for placing under vases will remove the danger of getting rings on furniture from careless filling or handling of vases. Brooms and mops, properly hung and frequently cleaned, last longer. Asbestos rope can be secured to seal the stovepipe as it enters the chimney and prevent smoky streaks on the wall. Oil stoves and sewing machines, cleaned frequently, give better service and last longer.

Equipment that is not being used should be repaired and put back into service. When partially worn out, it should be continued in service until no longer useful and then be disposed of. Six oil stoves in the foods laboratory are six stoves to the superintendent, although two may be hopelessly worn out and two in need of repairs. The worn-out ones should be disposed of and the others put back into commission. The department then has four usable stoves. Partially worn-out spoons, measuring cups, sieves, and badly chipped and cracked dishes should be used until worn out and then disposed of. Some departments have twice as many pieces in use as are needed, and none really good. A study of the problems arising in keeping up the department will offer an excellent opportunity for the teacher and the girls to find out whether their knowledge can be used to solve real problems.

The whole plan for storage may need to be reworked, food supplies put into glass or metal containers, more enclosed cupboard space made available, oilcloth put on wooden table tops, a place fixed for drying towels in the sun. Some practices may need to be changed. Clean curtains may be too expensive. A picture, wall hanging, and artistic bowls for flowers may add the note of

hominess and color, may be easy to keep clean and attractive, and the curtains may be put aside. Keeping any part of the department not in use at the time in good condition and looking well calls for special plans. Illustrative material is of little value unless in good condition and easily accessible to both teacher and students.

Keeping a department clean and orderly, ready for work for each class and from day to day, presents special housekeeping problems. The work that needs to be done, the persons available for doing it, the amount of time which can justly be given to it, and when this help is to be had, are all factors in making a housekeeping plan. Here again, preventing the need for work is as important or even more so than getting things in order or cleaning up. Being lazy may be a good thing if it means setting blackened kettles on paper instead of on the table, using holders instead of dish towels for handling utensils, letting trimmings in sewing fall on paper instead of being thrown on the floor to be swept up later. Classes frequently form careless habits of work because there are so many to clean up.

The jobs to be done at school should be thought of as daily, weekly, and occasional. Each class should leave the department ready for the next one, but the floor may be swept only once a day if that is all it needs, the dish towels rinsed out daily and laundered weekly, and the curtains cleaned occasionally. Setting standards for the housekeeping of the department and then studying all the factors in maintaining these standards is an excellent teaching problem. A kitchen floor could no doubt be kept spotless if mopped daily, but can the class afford to do it? The problem then becomes one of finding out how the department can be kept reasonably clean with the time to be given to it. Keeping uniforms in good condition between class periods, caring for books while working, and getting out and putting away sewing boxes present special storage problems.

Housekeeping rules are frequently set up and each girl has to do a job whether it needs to be done or not. An opportunity for developing judgment on the part of pupils is overlooked. Another poor practice which frequently results from having a set of housekeeping rules to be carried out by a number of girls is the failure to see the various jobs in relation to one another. The sink is

cleaned before the group is through using it. Dusting precedes sweeping if the girl charged with that duty gets ready to do it. The waste basket is emptied before all the waste is gathered up. There is really much more to housekeeping in a home economics department than usually is made use of in teaching situations.

Students should be led to see what system, order, and cleanliness mean in their working and in their pleasure in living in the department and given the task of helping find the best ways of attaining them. Tentative plans may be set up to be revised as work goes on. Any plan should be thought of as open to change when a better way has been found. Students, helped in setting up criteria for efficient housekeeping in terms of certain standards of cleanliness and order to be maintained and a minimum of time for doing it, will be more likely to enter wholeheartedly into making plans than if the teacher sets the standards. The wise teacher will let students try out ways they suggest even though she is doubtful of their being the best ways possible. Results may then be evaluated and better ones sought. Such learning will have a carry-over into other situations.

Opening and Closing a Department

First impressions count for a great deal. To have the department fresh and clean, ready for work when the class comes in the first day, means more than a teacher may realize. Arriving at least a working day before the first faculty meeting is a good investment for the teacher even though she may be employed only for the school year. A new teacher will find arriving two or three days early a safer margin. Many schools, however, are extending the period of employment both before and at the end of the school year. If the teacher is new and not acquainted, the principal will gladly supply the names of three or four girls conveniently located who have been especially interested in home economics. A letter to them will secure their help in getting acquainted and in putting the department in shape for a good beginning, clean and well aired, curtains up if there are any, flowers planned for. If things were left in good condition, this will not be difficult. Plans should also be made for getting the entire department in good working order

as soon as possible. Checking the inventory, finding out the money available, method of handling finances, stores at which to purchase, and whether there are unpaid bills are jobs demanding early attention.

The closing of a department should not be a last-minute job. When it is, confusion usually runs riot, the teacher gets worked up over all the red tape, some girls decide there is too much drudgery and dirty work to home economics, and some things are left undone. Certain things can be done early in the last month. Some must be left to the last. The class time used should be at a minimum except when the work has real teaching value. Much of it has if the teacher will take the time to study what needs to be done and how these experiences may be made educative for students. As now carried out in many schools very little valuable learning results.

Two conditions cause most of the confusion during these last few days. One is the teacher's telling the girls what to do. They see no order or system in the work being done. The other is a sudden desire to have everything spotless. Pots and pans are scoured that should have been kept clean. Cupboards are cleaned out that should never have gotten in such a disorderly condition. As a result, everything is upset and everyone gets on edge. Food supplies should be disposed of when the last food-preparation work has been done. Pans and kettles, cooking knives and forks, may receive an extra cleaning during the last week of this period as the spare time of any group permits. Unclaimed uniforms can be returned or disposed of then. Stoves should be cleaned when the period for use for the year is over. Draperies may be cleaned and stored with the coming of spring and the department put in summer garb. Cupboards and closets should be kept fairly orderly all the time, but if a thorough overhauling seems desirable this can be done two or three weeks before the end of the year.

The more advanced class may make the final plans for closing the department. Regardless of the condition in which it is kept all the time, a final check-up is necessary. Reports must be made, grades turned in, bills paid, furniture protected, things made mouseproof and antproof, silver safely stored, student work returned. There will be plenty of last-minute jobs, but they can be

planned for, time allowed for doing them, and the girls receive an excellent lesson in management principles put into operation.

Management in Relation to Human Resources

The department has at its disposal three types of human resources—the teacher, the students, and outside persons who serve or may be called upon to serve the department. The last type is represented by the superintendent, a doctor in the community, boys in agriculture, the janitor. No consideration of principles and practices of management would be complete in teaching home economics without a study of these resources and the effectiveness with which they are being used. The school itself may need to have its attention called to examples of poor management in using the department for trivial and routine services—asking the teacher and students to earn money for its maintenance, serving school lunches under conditions which use their time without providing new learning, doing routine sewing in making costumes for a school play. The teacher also may need to ask herself how well she is using her time and energy and experience in the education of students. Many teachers do not work at their best because they do not take time to plan in advance or do not evaluate the demands made upon them and select those of greatest value to be carried out. Some teachers use their time within the classroom in showing first one student and then another, never getting around a group, and doing little real teaching in the process. They mistakenly call this individualized teaching.

The use the student makes of her time in the classroom often raises questions of management. Freedom that naturally accompanies the work being done is to be desired in the classroom. Freedom which expresses itself as license to gossip, chatter, or do nothing at all calls for teacher and student study of the situation. A home economics teacher said recently, after seeing a classroom in which the light went on automatically when visibility went below a certain candle power, "If I only had a contraption that would 'shush' the girls when their noise gets above a certain volume." This teacher was overlooking noise in relation to activity. Some home economics activities are naturally noisier than others. A quiet

girl or a quiet group may be using its resources as wastefully as a noisy one. The teacher's concern should be not with the noise *per se* but with its relationship to what is being done or not being done by the group. Girls should be encouraged to ask themselves now and then what they have done; what they have learned in the doing; if they have gotten their money's worth; if the school has been repaid for its investment. In some schools, home economics is the only place throughout the school day where students may move about with freedom, talk to their classmates, relax from rather rigid routine. The teacher and the girls will do well, then, to plan learning situations which meet these needs. Wherever confusion reigns or girls are restless or indifferent, the teacher should also ask herself if her planning or lack of planning is in any way responsible for conditions. Are the experiences worth while for the students? Do they see them as worth while because they have helped plan them? Is the classroom set up and the teacher's use of her time with students such as to promote good use of their resources and hers as well as the material resources of the department?

Using Management of the Department as Teaching Problems

The management situations arising within the department are one of the best sources of such problems that the teacher can have. A smoothly running department may be the result either of teacher standards and teacher assignment of jobs to be done or of teacher-pupil solutions to recognized problems. Just as management problems in the home are concerned with the use of time, money, energy, materials, and knowledge in reaching goals that seem worth working for—more leisure, money for other things, less fatigue, things kept where the individual can find them, a clean and orderly place with a reasonable amount of work—so may these be concerns of home economics teaching.

Beginning girls will need much stimulation in seeing problems and help in finding solutions. Even here the teacher may suggest possible choices rather than dictate procedures. Setting up goals for what the girls wish to learn in food preparation and then giving

the class a notion of the amount which can be spent for food materials for the unit is a problem of real worth. The students will need to seek information at home and will have increased respect for family financial problems. They will also have increased respect for the less expensive foods. The more advanced class may help make the general budget for the entire department and assist in keeping records and in checking or paying bills. Actual purchasing of materials for the unit is within the learning ability of any class. Prices are never high or low of themselves. The problem is relative. How much money is available? What other things are to be purchased? What use is to be made of the purchase?

Planning housekeeping duties, setting standards for doing work, and discussing the quality of work done are among the simpler problems. Slightly more difficult are solutions to such questions as: what is it costing to keep the department clean and orderly? What easier and quicker ways will get as good results? The class may have extra things they want to do with the time saved. Recognition should be given the girl who improves the method of handling one of these jobs or who solves some other management problem in the department. Management of time and energy as it relates to learning in home economics presents its own problems, and these problems should not be neglected in the teaching. Management of the department and their own resources should be a constant challenge to both teacher and pupils to put into practice the teachings of home economics.

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CHAPTER XX

HOME ECONOMICS FOR BOYS

Home economics began as a skill subject to teach girls to cook and sew and care for the house. To many people homemaking was housekeeping and housekeeping was a woman's job. Many changes in both practices and ways of thinking have taken place since that time. Homemaking is being recognized increasingly as a joint enterprise for men and women, housekeeping as different from and subordinate to homemaking. Home economics has added breadth and depth, has become a field concerned with all the problems of family living. Boys have elected home economics in many schools—their first interest largely in food study, extending into all aspects of the field.

The Needs of All Youth

Education for home living and homemaking becomes extremely important in a democratic society. Life's greatest satisfactions and dissatisfactions for most people are intimately tied up with life within the home. Whatever happens there influences all other relationships. Learning the ways of democracy begins in family living. A desire that life be rich and full for each and every one, that people living together be concerned for group well-being, then, demands fine and wholesome family life. Much of the cultural heritage is passed on through the family. Ideals and standards of value and ways of meeting one's daily needs are learned in the home.

Learning to live in the world begins early and is concerned with such elementary things as food to eat, clothes to wear, social habits and customs, ways of living with other people. Because each person must do these things in some fashion in order to go on living, many people take it for granted that the necessary learning will be picked up as needed. It does not take a keen observer,

however, to see that many people have problems connected with all these very elementary needs throughout life. It is to be expected that new problems will arise and new learning be needed. Life changes for the individual. His world widens. Social changes produce different conditions of living, call for new ways of meeting situations. This broadening and changing of the environment would call for new learning regardless of how effective the early learning had been.

It is not the new problems which give one concern, however, but rather the demand for learning in later life which comes from a need never having been met in childhood and youth. This is also frequently accompanied by the necessity to unlearn many things learned in early life. Situations were met by "pick-up" methods. Children did not learn to select their food or care for their health by using the best knowledge available. They ate what they wanted, much of this and none of that. Their hours of rest were frequently adult hours; the atmosphere in which they lived, one of tension. Children have grown up without any real concern on the part of adults that they arrive at standards and values in regard to home and family life. Home experiences are frequently heavily weighted emotionally, resulting in strong biases for or against ways of behaving that are personally and socially desirable. Few are the result of conscious education. That so many are desirable is the result of chance rather than intelligent planning.

Many people today are concerned with the increasing number of broken homes. A frequent reaction is that marriage has somehow failed—and in some cases this is no doubt true. More often, however, it is the individual who has failed marriage, who has brought to this new relationship little with which to build a successful joint enterprise in a relationship as intimate as marriage and as self-sacrificing as family life. Formal, planned education has left the education of the individual in the intimate everyday aspects of personal and family living too much to chance. Much of it should take place outside the school, but it should be planned, nevertheless, recognized by those individuals and agencies concerned with it as part of their job. The school has two major responsibilities in such education. One is to help adults see their responsibility as individuals and the responsibilities of the social

groups through which they operate in educating on-coming youth to live a more fruitful and satisfying personal and family life. The other is to provide the education needed within the area of immediate personal and social living which can be offered best by the school. This is a program *for all the school* and *for all the children of the school*—boys as well as girls. In such a program, home economics should occupy an important place in offering guidance to the school in defining its job more clearly and in providing instruction in those aspects which it can do best.

Values in Home Economics for Boys

Home economics today is concerned with all aspects of personal and family living—with food and clothing and housing, the rearing of children, the management of resources, the protection of health and the care of the sick, and personal and family relationships. Its problems are largely those of all individuals. There was a time when the man of the family ate what was put before him. He wore the clothes his wife or mother made for him from cloth she had woven. He lived in a house he had built. His resources were all around him. If he wanted more clothes, he raised more sheep. If he wanted more living space, he built on a room. With few exceptions, people lived in family groups throughout life.

The individual today is not fed or clothed or housed in any such way. He selects his food from many sources, grown and prepared under many conditions. How well he is fed often depends upon what he himself knows about nutritive values, ways of preparing food in relation to nutrition, food value in terms of cost. His clothes satisfy him, wear well, meet his needs—or fail to do any of these things—largely because of what he knows about buying and caring for clothing. The meeting of his needs and his desires demands a constant adjustment of all his resources. The kind of place he lives in and his general well-being are dependent just as much upon what he knows as upon what he earns. Home economics has a worth-while contribution to make in providing education for personal living for all children and youth.

The home has changed in many of its outward aspects. It is no longer a production center. Many of its material needs are met

by commercial agencies. The home as a social institution, however, goes on and no signs point to its discontinuance. The job of homemaking has undergone many changes and will no doubt continue to change. Its success is being recognized as dependent upon joint endeavor. Education for marriage and family life is coming to be thought of as necessary to successful homemaking. Conscious education of the young within the home is assuming a more important place in educational thinking, although this is recognized as only part of the education needed. The newer planning in education for homemaking no longer limits itself to an education for girls and women.

Home economics has much to offer in education for home and family life. Its teaching materials are made up of the manner in which society has met its problems of family living and the way in which various fields of knowledge can contribute to making home life richer and more satisfying. Home economics can help in reaching decisions as to values most worth working for in family living. It can contribute to the achieving of wholesome, satisfying personal and social relationships. It can help in discovering individual and group interests and needs. It can aid in using individual and family resources to achieve the values which the individual and family want most.[1] These are homemaking needs, different in some of their details for men than for women, but common in their basic aspects.

Home economics may also contribute to preparing boys for gainful employment. As housekeeping jobs left the home, many new vocational fields were opened up. Men as well as women have found vocational interests within these fields. The vocational-guidance opportunities for boys in home economics should not be overlooked. Some schools also offer opportunities for training and these may be expected to increase. Both boys and girls should have access to all the resources of the school, including home economics, in finding out special talents and in following up special interests. Home economics can also contribute to the general employability of boys as well as girls and to their satisfaction on the job.[2]

[1] See pp. 2-4.
[2] See p. 4.

Boys have elected home economics in many schools over a period of years. The early courses were set up especially for boys, with emphasis on nutrition and cookery, clothing selection, social conduct and manners, and personal financing. More recent courses have added units on personal and family relationships, marriage, and the rearing of children. Today three opportunities for education in personal and home living and homemaking are available to boys within the schools. One is as a part of the integrated program of general education for all boys and girls. The second is in special home economics classes usually elective, sometimes set up for boys alone, sometimes for boys and girls together. The third is in non-home economics courses for boys and girls, sometimes elective, often, however, a unit in a required course.[3]

Home-Life Education in the Integrated Program

Many elementary schools are moving in the direction of a curriculum centered around life activities. In such a program home-life education should occupy an important place, and home economics should play an important part in educating both boys and girls. A number of excellent things are being done by home economics teachers at this level—some, in courses planned especially for these children; some, through opening the laboratories for activities originating in their classrooms; still others by home economics teachers working with them in their classrooms. Education for home living, however, is far from being accepted as a primary objective of the elementary school today. Science and social aspects of everyday living are being emphasized more and more, but attention is directed largely to life outside the home: life in the community as a worker and a citizen; the study of government, transportation, electricity, the manufacture of clothing, the city's food supply.

Children study much about the homes of people in other lands, but all too little about their own homes; how food is brought from all over the world but all too little about what they should eat and how it should be prepared. In the study of Greek life, they

[3] See Ivol Spafford, *A Functioning Program of Home Economics,* Chapter XII. John Wiley and Sons. 1940.

call on the home economics department to help in making costumes for the play to be presented, but seldom do they ask the department to help in a study of their own clothing because they do not study their own clothing. The offerings which home economics has to make in the first six grades can be general for boys and girls, fitting into the present organization of teaching materials.

"The elementary school is concerned with children at a period when they are forming many of their habits of personal living and when they are seeing the activities of other social institutions and agencies largely from the shelter of the home. Every elementary school would do well to set consciously as goals of education the acquiring of the ideals, understandings, appreciations, and abilities needed for wholesome and satisfying personal and home life. No set patterns are to be desired. Home economics can add much to understanding and appreciating the family and the home, and the relationship to and interdependence of the family with other social groups and agencies. Children need to learn to select their food and clothing, in time a place in which to live, to use and care for the material aspects of living. They need to learn to help with the work of the family, to protect their health, to live happily in everyday intimate relationships with family members and friends, and to grow in achieving a set of values for guiding conduct. Needs such as these must be met over and over again by every individual. Met satisfactorily, they enable the individual to live more nearly at his optimum capacity in other areas; met unsatisfactorily, they may cause much of the richness of life to be missed."[4] Such education is as important for boys as for girls.[5]

The secondary schools are moving in the direction of providing a more unified curriculum. Basic in this reorganization is the development of core courses. Some core courses are little more than a combination of subject-matter courses. Others cut across subject-matter lines, focusing on a period of civilization in all its aspects, as Roman civilization; or a function of society, as transportation and the life of today. Still more recently this unifying

[4] *Ibid.*, p. 158.

[5] See *Ibid.*, Chapters V-VI, for specific offerings of home-life education at the elementary level and for suggestions for building a broad program for elementary school children.

of instruction has focused on a study of life problems: personality development, growing up in the family, spending one's money, vocational orientation. In such programs home-life problems occupy an increasingly important place, and home economics is being drawn more and more into the teaching.

Core and unified studies at the junior-high-school level have been developed in some schools by fine and industrial arts and home economics; in a few, by teachers from all fields. When home economics is not drawn into the developing of core courses, it may act as a service field, giving help whenever called upon.[6] In the core offerings in one senior-high school, the home economics department assumed responsibility for helping tenth-grade students to solve some of their personal problems of health, appearance, social conduct, and personal relations. In the second semester of the twelfth grade, these students studied problems connected with establishing a home of their own under the direction of teachers of biology, home economics, art, and industrial arts. In a second high school, twelfth-grade students have the opportunity to elect a course called "Social Problems." The main emphasis throughout the course is on problems of personal and family living. The most frequent units selected by the students for study are social arts, consumer economics, family relationships and personality development, use of leisure time, vocational and educational orientation. The unit on social arts is usually taught by a home economist and is intended to help the students in a very direct way to prepare for marriage, home and family life.[7]

For some reason many schools do not yet see present-day problems of personal and family living as having sufficient educational worth for the study of all students. It should be recognized that it is not enough in certain core courses for girls to do some sewing, to make draperies and pillows for a recreation room, study china and glassware in order to buy dishes for serving refreshments. These needs should be met when they arise, but this is not using home economics at its best. Somewhere at the junior-high-school level there is need for a core course for boys and girls, centering around the activities of home life today, with time enough allowed for the acquiring of the learning necessary to meet the ordinary

[6] *Ibid.*, pp. 162-174.
[7] *Ibid.*, pp. 202-208; 273-278.

problems of living. Somewhere in the later senior-high-school years there should be a course concerned with the problems of older boys and girls in their seeking greater independence and more adult relationships with their families and in preparation for marriage and homemaking and the rearing of children. The course content for any particular group should be controlled by the needs of the members and by the learning acquired elsewhere, in the home and in the school.

Forward-looking school men criticize home economics teachers for the wall they would build around their materials, offering little encouragement for their use by other teachers and showing little interest in the pupils who want only a little in the field. If home economics is to occupy an important place in the education of the future, home economics teachers on every level must be willing to forget for a time the students who are majoring in the field and take part in conferences planned to set up the large objectives of education in terms of the needs of the student and of society and to determine the material from all fields, including home economics which can best contribute to the attaining of these large goals. Home economics has a rich offering to make to a larger group than is now being reached. The material must be selected and gradated to the maturity, interests, and needs of the various levels.

Many administrators and curriculum workers and teachers in other fields, on the other hand, are to be criticized for the little recognition they are giving home economics as they develop the broader core programs. Many have had little contact with the field in their own education and fail to see the broad values in home economics as it is offered today. They fail to appreciate the need of a large body of students for education in this area and are unaware of the very real interest of many boys in studying along these lines.

Special Home Economics Offerings for Boys

Special courses have a place in home economics. In the elementary grades, special courses should be offered only for the group which for some reason needs more than is being given to the entire group in integrated courses or as part of other subjects. This

group in the main will be made up of over-age boys and girls who are not likely to go into high school and who should learn more about home-life education and homemaking. The plan for integrated material means that all boys and girls in the elementary grades will receive more from the home economics field than is now being made available to them and that the few who are now getting it as a special subject will receive much less of a certain type of material, largely simple cookery and sewing, than is now being provided for them.

The high school should not only offer basic home economics material to all boys and girls but it should also offer courses for those who have special interest in various aspects, as well as work in all-around homemaking for those who wish or need to go further with intensive training. Many of these courses should be open to boys as well as to girls. A boy who wishes to know more about foods and food preparation, furniture, furnishings, and interior decoration should feel as free as any girl in the school to enter such courses if they are offered. As teachers become more adept at meeting the needs of individual students in their teaching and at individualizing the curriculum, it should be possible to meet the needs of both boys and girls in such classes. Some boys have entered these courses because of a genuine personal interest, some for vocational guidance, tryout, and training purposes. Boys who have wanted to go into various lines of work connected with food preparation have been much interested in the food-study courses which emphasize nutrition and cooking. Boys interested in tailoring and retail selling have wanted to study textiles and art applied to clothing. Boys as a whole have been more eager to enter such courses than home economics teachers have been to have them, such teachers not being sure just what they would do with them. A few schools have admitted boys to a well-rounded home economics course with girls—the boys participating in most of the activities except the work in clothing construction. Boys in high school have lived in practice cottages;[8] young men in college, in the home-management house.[9]

[8] P. T. Orata and Olive Galloway, "Promoting Boy-Girl Relationships through the Practice Cottage." *Journal of Home Economics,* 30:321-323. December, 1938.

[9] Florence Davis, "Boys in the Home Management House." *Journal of Home Economics,* 33:640-641. November, 1941.

Special home economics courses have been set up for boys and girls together and for boys alone at both the junior- and senior-high-school levels. As early as 1920, a practical-arts course for seventh-grade boys and girls was planned as a part of the curriculum offerings in one state.[10] This course was related to the vocational-guidance program being developed and focused attention on the job they might hope to get if they went to work, how much they would earn, and what the money would be spent for. Boys have been keenly interested in the cost of clothing, food, shelter, recreation, health protection, further education. They have expressed surprise at total living costs and wanted to know what they must learn to make their money go further. Buying clothing, getting a good sweater, selecting trousers which would not bag, finding out which ties and hose were rayon, and knowing what to expect of synthetic fibers have held their attention as much as that of any girls. Selecting food for its greatest return, the effect of food in keeping fit, and food and general well-being have been problems of intense interest along food lines.

Most of the early home economics courses for boys were offered in the senior high school. The first interest was in cookery and nutrition but this has been extended to include all phases of home economics. Many schools offering work to boys for the first time still place emphasis on food study, clothing selection, manners and conduct, and personal finances. Typical of the broader courses planned for boys is a course that begins with personality development, good grooming, and personal relationships. The assumption is made that boys of that age would like to look well, get along with and be liked by others of their age of both sexes. Problems of selection and care of clothing and personal hygiene are discussed. Social and emotional aspects of sexual maturing are studied. Later the boy's place in the home, his relation to his parents and other members of his family, and his responsibilities within the home are taken up. In the second semester special attention is given to physical and mental health, food and nutrition including food preparation and service, courtesy and manners.

These first courses were for boys alone, and many still are. Some

[10] *Practical Arts for Junior High Schools.* Alabama State Department of Education, Montgomery, 1920. Out of print.

schools, however, have been quite successful in developing courses that emphasize personal and family relationships, marriage, and child development for boys and girls together. Some of the problems in which boys have been most interested have to do with a man's share in homemaking, the amount of money he can safely marry on, a fair way of handling the money in the home, women working outside the home after marriage, the responsibility a man should take in caring for children. The personal-relationship problems which they raise are even more numerous and varied: social customs, smoking and drinking, petting, the attitude of girls when boys have little money to spend and no car to drive. These are not all home economics problems, but they are real-life problems which the school should plan to meet, with home economics contributing its share in their solution.

Vocational Agriculture and Home Economics

Vocational departments of agriculture and home economics have an unusual opportunity to work together for the enrichment of rural life. The occupation of farming has always been closely tied up with family life. No clear-cut line between the vocation and home life has ever been drawn. The farmer, needing help in outside work, called on all the family to provide it. Extra employed help shared in the family life. The food supply was influenced largely by the products which could not be sold and the time left over from more important jobs to attend to the garden, poultry, fruit, and dairy.

Many vocational-agricultural teachers have offered the girls in home economics short units in gardening and poultry raising, home repairs and home conveniences. Home economics teachers have given the boys a few lessons in nutrition, general manners and table etiquette, selecting and caring for their clothes. These lessons have been worth while and should continue to be given until such instruction is provided in the earlier years of schooling of all children. It is better for a few boys to get such instruction now than for none to receive it.

In a few schools cooperative effort has been extended further. Problems that are being attacked jointly by teachers in a limited

number of schools include providing recreation for farm families, planning time for things other than work, providing opportunities for different members to follow special interests, making the farm as nearly self-sustaining as possible in addition to the money crop produced. Often, in sections where dairying does not pay as a business, rural families do not have enough milk. Many families do not raise sufficient garden stuff and fruit for a well-balanced diet. The farmer has tools for work while the house is inconvenient. This may be due to the men's having no notion of the difference that a few conveniences would make in ease of working and in general comfort of living and to the women's not asking for things. A united attack by the vocational-agriculture and home economics classes on the whole problem of farm home life would prove most profitable. Usually such a program will have to be not only initiated by the home economics teacher but also nursed by her until she gets the agricultural teacher to see its significance in making the instruction he is giving successful.[11]

Problems Arising in Planning Home Economics for Boys

One of the first problems the home economics teacher faces in planning home economics for boys has to do with content—to decide what are the most worth-while experiences to make available for them whether in a short unit in the exchange of classes with agriculture or in core courses or in a semester or year of work offered as a special course. If the work is new in a school, the boys are likely to express an interest in food preparation, and many teachers accept this interest as valid and give almost all the time to study in that area. Experiences everywhere point to their interest in other phases once they are offered to them. The older boys are keenly interested in manners and conduct, boy-and-girl relationships, grooming, and establishing a home. The younger boys are interested in their own growing up and in those social situations in particular which have to do with adolescent adjustment in their own families.

From the point of view of method, other problems arise. Young

[11] See also Ivol Spafford, *A Functioning Program of Home Economics*, pp. 234-239. John Wiley and Sons. 1940.

adolescents like activity. They want to cook, to use the electric mixer and the egg beater, to try out the mop wringer. They dry-clean neckties, press pants, test wool and silk fabrics with vim and vigor. Some teachers are almost overcome by their enthusiasm; others fail to distinguish between enthusiasm and rowdyism and serious discipline problems may arise. This frequently results in trouble for the boys and may hurt the future of home economics in a particular school. The same fundamentals of good teaching for girls will make for good teaching for boys even though the problems in which boys are most interested may be different and the activities in which they participate may also differ. The most successful teachers of boys today admit that the transition from teaching home economics to girls to teaching boys is a difficult one to make.

A third problem centers around whether to teach boys alone or boys and girls together. There is no general agreement among either teachers or administrators as to which is best—probably there should be no one practice. Strong points are made by the advocates on both sides. For the vast majority of schools, the evidence seems to favor classes for boys alone during the early high-school years, perhaps throughout the high school at present. Mixed classes, where offered, have seemed to work out best in the junior and senior years. Some believe such classes are best in the large high school where the outside social life of a particular group is not so likely to be interwoven. Discussion then can be more objective than when students know that a particular student is referring to his own situation when he says, "A friend of mine—" or "A boy I know—."

The conclusion in favor of separate classes for boys and girls in most schools—at least for the first work—is based on several facts. The first is that boys and girls mature at different ages. The seventh-grade boy is younger socially and emotionally than the girls of the same chronological age. This holds for most boys throughout high school. In the early high-school years the boys will be shorter than girls whom they will later exceed in height. Ninth- and tenth-grade girls want to and frequently do go with boys in the eleventh and twelfth grades. Differences in maturing

make a difference in the problems which concern boys and girls in the same grade.

The culture in which they live also has its influence on their interests. Boys admit to a much greater interest in eating than girls. No dainty salads and sandwiches for them unless they are to be appetizers to a hearty meal to follow. Their clothing problems are different. The boys' interest in good manners and correct social conduct is usually much greater than they will admit before girls. They will seat the teacher for an entire period in preparation for seating their girl friends at a special function, will practice dipping soup away from them, or buttering a small piece of bread instead of the usual slice in all seriousness in a class for boys alone, but refuse to show the slightest interest in good manners in a class with girls.

There is a need for boys and girls to learn to talk over situations together—to see the point of view of members of the other sex. Teachers most in favor of the separate class for most of their work recognize the need for such discussion and would have it if the periods could be arranged administratively. Some would have both sexes together after the boys have caught up with the girls, met the problems peculiarly their own, and are ready to talk with girls. The formal teaching of most academic subjects today is not good preparation for the discussion of intimate personal problems if the boys are to have only one or two semesters of such work.

The problems just mentioned have to do with teaching home economics to boys. There is also the large problem of interesting boys in home economics and the even larger problem of getting others in the school—the administrators and teachers—to see the values in home economics for boys. Tradition raises a barrier. Homemaking and housekeeping have been women's work. Home economics has been a girl's subject. This point of view influences the older generation more than the younger. Administrative officers, parents, and student advisers fail to see any of its aspects as worth while for boys even when the boys see it as valuable and worth taking. In some instances the home economics teacher's own narrow viewpoint stands in the way of its wider use. The experiences she would plan for boys would add little in breadth or depth to their education.

A further problem presents itself in the home economics teacher's load. Double periods reduce the number of classes to be taught in a day. Laboratory work limits the number of pupils in a class. Teachers who see worth-while material to give boys and who would like to teach them have no time in their present schedules. Superintendents who see values in home economics for boys cannot provide the additional staff to make it available for them. The whole problem of length of period, size of classes, organization for laboratory and non-laboratory units needs serious study. Common sense seems to point to varying lengths of periods and different-sized-classes for different aspects of the work for both boys and girls.

Home economists should study the whole problem of home economics for boys much more seriously than they have yet done. There is need to find out at what age levels such work should be given and what learning experiences should be provided. Society has no greater need today than to help people find fulfilment in the relationships of family life from infancy throughout adulthood and to learn to live democratically within the home. In the planning and carrying out of such an educational program, home economics should offer leadership.

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CHAPTER XXI

HOME ECONOMICS AND ADULT EDUCATION

Formal schooling has long been planned for children and youth. Adult education until recent years, exclusive of college and university education, has been thought of as desirable for the educationally underprivileged and for the foreign born. With the development of an industrial society a second value was recognized and a vocational program of adult education built up. More recently, education has come to be thought of as a continuous process, and people are beginning to believe that the public-school system should provide the opportunity for wide-spread continuation of education throughout life.

Changing conditions call for new education even for those persons best educated in their youth. New vocations are being developed, old ones are changing in many details; new problems arise in regard to meeting the responsibilities of citizenship, of parenthood, and of homemaking. National defense demands changes in ways of living, less use of some materials and more use of others. No one can spend or save successfully on the basis of what he knew a few years ago. Leisure time has increased, recreational needs and interests have changed. All these things make new demands upon the individual and call for new learning.

Adult Needs for Home-Life Education

All studies of youth and older adults point to their desire for happy, successful family life.[1] That many have not achieved their goal, and that others will not, as matters now stand, seems self-evident. The adult role in family living is many-sided and changes with the years. Much that is needed in adulthood for successful home life will be acquired in early life—ideals, attitudes, abilities,

[1] Ivol Spafford, *A Functioning Program of Home Economics*, pp. 44-46. John Wiley and Sons. 1940.

and habits which make for successful living with other people, for well-adjusted personalities, and for meeting personal needs.

A number of factors will bring about the need for additional learning, however. Adulthood and its accompanying role of husband or wife, parent and homemaker, makes its own demands for learning—demands that did not exist in childhood and early youth. As adults become homemakers, problems of home life take on new meaning even to those whose home experiences have prepared them well for homemaking or who have had a well-rounded home economics course in high school or college. They need not only more learning but also learning emphasized from a different point of view.

Needs of other adults may be for remedial learning. The need for learning or the opportunity to learn was passed by earlier because it seemed unimportant or other things seemed more important. Many persons who saw no need to learn nutrition, food preparation, protection of health, or money management in their youth now recognize the worth of such learning. Changing social conditions change family life. War and national defense, women working, unemployment and seasonal employment, industrialization, smaller families, mobility of population, increasing longevity, all have their effect upon home life and the family and create new needs for learning.[2] New discoveries and new applications of knowledge make continued study necessary. Experimentation is constantly changing both what is known and the application of knowledge in the field of homemaking. The woman who was well informed when she began housekeeping, if not constantly alert, soon finds herself behind the times in many aspects of her job. Some will know how to find the information they want without going to school, but even these people may prefer to get it with other adults in regular classwork. One important thing is that they both know how to seek reliable information and to evaluate what they have. These needs are the needs of all adults not of a few, although the nature and extent of the learning will vary for different individuals and different groups.

Home economics cuts across all the different kinds of adult education. Its greatest contribution, however, is in the areas of

[2] *Ibid.*, pp. 57-61.

personal and home-life education. The home economics program for adults cannot be adequately cared for in a short discussion. Some of the high spots can be touched upon, however, and an approach to the problem started. What is said will be largely from the standpoint of the day-school teacher, who has the teaching of older adults or out-of-school youth as a small part of her program, and the person who will teach an occasional unit. The teacher who will give full time to the work should take time to study intensively along this line. All teachers of adults would profit by taking a special course as pre- or in-service training.

Home Economics Offerings for Adults

Up to the present time, home economics in the adult educational program has offered most to women and in the maintenance aspects of living. Women have been interested in learning about feeding, clothing, and housing the family, in protecting health and caring for the sick, and in caring for children. More emphasis has been placed on cooking than on nutrition or buying food, on sewing than on selecting or purchasing clothing, on furniture and furnishings than on choosing the house in which to live or financing a home. Problems in these areas have been most pressing; the results, tangible. It has been in the physical aspects of personal and family living and especially in the manipulative processes that home economics teachers have felt most secure. Until recently they have known little about child development, mental hygiene, personality development, and human relationships. Even with new knowledge in these areas, home economics teachers, in general, have felt less confidence in their ability to help people meet problems along these lines.

Child-study groups, taught largely by specialists, have been offered in a number of places during recent years. These have dealt, in the main, with pre-school children or, at most, with the early school years. Problems of adolescence, so far as education for parents is concerned, has been almost totally neglected. The study of family relationships, human adjustment, and personality development represents newer trends in education for both youth in school and adults out of school. Adults, both men and women, are

interested in these aspects, and classes taught by competent teachers are well attended. Household buying, family financing, housing, and health are other areas of increasing interest at this level.

Because of the greater interest in the past in education for the young, opportunities for adults have been extremely limited. A good many home economics classes, and yet few in relation to the total adult population, have been developed as part of the vocational program. This instruction has been planned primarily from the point of view of the home, although some classes have been set up to contribute to the proficiency of the wage earner in homemaking pursuits. Special educational opportunities for out-of-school youth represent a recent development. In these programs more attention has been given to wage-earning aspects. Home-life and homemaking education for all adults should be expanded both in the nature of the offerings made available and in the number of adults reached.

Types of Programs

Home-life education as offered to adults falls into three general classes: the short unit of instruction, dealing with one or two phases of work; the well-rounded program, extending over a longer period and most often planned for out-of-school youth; and the community program, coordinating various aspects of work for both in- and out-of-school groups. The early developments of adult education in homemaking were of the short-unit type and this is still the most common offering. A city program may offer several different units at one time and have several series during the year, but the organization will most often be of the unit type. Each unit usually deals with one phase of home economics or type of problem. Because of the more extensive offerings, the individual person in the city may take several units during a year. The classes developed by the day-school home economics teacher and by the home economics and agricultural teachers as joint activities are usually set up in short units. These units may be anywhere from eight to eighteen lessons. Frequently, because of the heavy load of other work, a teacher can offer only one unit during a year or at least only one within a particular community.

Short units of instruction have been offered to out-of-school youth in many places. A more fruitful program for these groups has been the well-rounded homemaking program, extending for several hours weekly over a period of several months. These programs cover the whole field of homemaking, and some also emphasize employment training. In many respects they are much like a broad high-school program. Because of the maturity of the pupils, however, they are usually much more realistic, instruction having an immediacy that few high-school programs ever attain.

The community programs of family-life education represent a coordination of all the people and agencies within a community interested in improving home and family living. Work for adults is only a part of such programs. The total program has the richness of coordinated effort together with all the advantages of joint support and promotion.[3]

Teachers of adults are recruited from many sources. Anyone trained in a field and with ability to teach adults is suitable as a teacher. A nurse may teach a unit in home care of the sick or prenatal care. A dressmaker or tailor may give a course in clothing construction; an architect, in home building; a banker, in home financing. A homemaker may teach her less favored neighbors. This teaching may be done as a sideline to other work or as a full-time job. Many single classes are taught by the day-school home economics teacher, especially those teaching in vocational programs. Several states now organize the vocational program of home economics with adult teaching as a definite part of the work. Some teachers in the general programs teach adult classes in connection with city programs. Some states provide for itinerant teachers for adult classes. They may be specialists in fields demanding more training or experience than the usual day-school teacher would have or they may be needed because the day-school teacher carries too heavy a schedule to do such work. Some cities and industrial centers employ teachers full-time to work with adults. These full-time teachers may be employed to carry on a general homemaking program—teaching units in various phases of home

[3] *Ibid.*, pp. 320-323. See also Edna P. Amidon and Muriel W. Brown, *Four Communities Pioneer*. Reprint from School Life. U. S. Office of Education. 1941.

economics—or they may be specialists in family relationships, mental hygiene, or child development. The background of these specialists is most often in home economics with additional training in psychology, sociology, child development, and human relationships. Some, however, have been sociologists, psychologists, kindergarten, and elementary-school teachers.

Not all adult work is being done or should be done by the school. Much fine work has been done by home-demonstration agents, working with adults in groups and as individuals. Many of the newer federal agencies provide help of an educational nature as part of their service. The Federal Security Administration is designed to aid the low-income farm family with its problems of rehabilitation. Farm and home supervisors work with the family in planning its improvement program and give help as needed in carrying it out. Other agencies offer other educational services. Much social service work carries educational features. The visiting nurse performs that function in the homes she visits. The Young Women's Christian Association and the churches in many places sponsor adult classes. Stores and other commercial agencies offer instruction of one kind or another. The greatest need so far as these different offerings are concerned is for coordinated effort so that omissions may be cared for and unnecessary duplication eliminated. Some places have solved or are solving this problem through a city or county council with representatives from those public and private groups primarily interested in education and/or human welfare.

Educating Out-of-School Youth

The depression with its problems of unemployment brought forcibly to the attention of many public and private agencies the problems of out-of-school youth. With a recognition of these problems came the realization that many of these young people were not employable had there been jobs available nor did they know how to meet the ordinary situations of everyday living with any degree of satisfaction or success. Short units of instruction were organized for them in many places, some for young women alone, some for young men and women together. These units dealt with

all phases of personal and home-life situations, depending upon the needs and interests of the group. The instruction had value. It introduced these young people to a type of functional education that many had never known before. It gave them confidence in themselves and assurance that other people were interested in their welfare. Such instruction, however, could do little more than scratch the surface of what needed to be done for them.

A second type of program, having both greater breadth and depth, was then developed especially for these out-of-school young people in a limited number of places in a number of states. It is this program which offers promise of remedying some of the deficiencies in the past education of young women today. This set-up provided for the part-time employment of these young women under the National Youth Administration. They then had some money of their own and could in part at least pay their own way. They lived together in large groups with a resident house director, paying from their earnings a nominal sum for their living expenses and doing the larger portion of the work of the house. In addition they were given instruction by a well-trained home economist who was selected both for her training and experience and for those personal qualities which made her especially understanding of and adaptable to this type of girl.

These young women differed widely in age, cultural and economic background, home experiences, schooling, number of years out of school, and attitude toward school. No set program of home economics could be planned for them. The teacher had to be tactful, establishing herself as an interested and understanding older person who had had experiences which would be helpful to them and which she wished to share with them. Frequently her work began with helping an individual girl or small group with a task already undertaken. As soon as the girls saw that they need not be ashamed of their shortcomings, that others had similar or at least equally serious ones, they took the initiative in asking for help. In a very short time, intensive, well-rounded programs, focused on solving the personal and homemaking problems of the individual student and the group, had been developed. Living in the house supplied the problems for study; the house itself was the laboratory. Instruction was immediately tested in

practice in the work done around the house in other than instruction hours.

Some states organized their programs with emphasis on education for homemaking now and later. Others combined this emphasis with education for wage-earning. All gave attention to personality development. Some centers had the students in continuous residence for a period of several months. Others alternated periods of residence with life at home. The girls at home were visited by the home economics instructor so that she might become better acquainted with their needs and give more effective instruction when they were in residence and so that she might help them apply at home what they were learning in school.

The Adult Class and the Day-School Program

In the small community the decision as to whether to have adult work in homemaking may rest entirely with the day-school teacher. Vocational homemaking programs are being set up more and more to include adult and day-school classes with the teacher employed to do both. The day school, however, provides the pupils for those classes. The way home economics is taught may influence girls to come to school or to stay in school, and this will certainly make a difference in whether they take home economics if it is elective. With the adult class much preliminary work is required in addition to the teaching, and the question always arises as to whether it is worth while in the long run or not. The day-school classes usually offer more than enough to do, and they must take the greater share of the planning time of the day-school teacher throughout the year.

Nevertheless, from the standpoint of its values to the day-school classes alone, adult work seems worth promoting. Nothing the home economics teacher can do will yield greater return in getting home economics recognized as an important field of study than a well-organized, well-taught adult class meeting the needs of the group attending. Home economics will cease to be a fad or a frill to at least one group of women, and they will stand ready to help broaden its program, give it a more important place in the total school offerings and give it increased support. If mothers

of home economics pupils are in the classes, increased interest in their children's work will naturally follow. Home practice and home projects will take on new meaning.

The teacher herself will receive benefits as great as the work. She will get a broader point of view concerning the needs of the day-school group. She will build up a more valuable background from facing at first hand the problems of the homes. She will also learn much in the way of simple practices, knowledge from the class about ways of meeting home problems which her training and limited experience have not provided. The necessity for making each lesson seem important and worth while to people who will come only if they are getting helpful learning causes most teachers to weigh more carefully what they are giving the day-school classes who cannot so easily drop out if dissatisfied.

Interesting Adults in Further Study

The value of an adult program to the day-school work is one reason for promoting it, but not the most important one. Adults are entitled to the opportunity for continued study in their own right and should be encouraged to make use of it, to insist upon it when it is not offered. The service of home economics to the whole community should be weighed and the total home economics program planned in the light of the needs of *all* the people, not those in day school first and the time left over, if there is any, given to work with adults. A few cities have developed their adult programs to the stage where the promotional work is allowed to care for itself. This does not necessarily mean that all the people who should or could be interested in the program are, but rather that the school system is satisfied with the number of people it is reaching without any special effort to enlarge the group. This is a narrow point of view concerning the service which may be rendered. Most adult work is built on a continued promotional program, directed to interesting others in the work. Every effort should be made to keep the program from being thought of as belonging to the teacher. She may have to be the real moving force behind the movement in the small community, but only so

far as she secures the active support of other people will it gain stability.

A local committee that has accepted responsibility for advising in regard to adult work and promoting such a program can be most helpful. If there are active chapters of Future Farmers and Homemakers, they may be interested in promoting such classes. A boy coming to high school from a backward rural district became so interested in home economics through a few lessons given to the agricultural boys that he persuaded the home economics teacher to come to his home community and interested the women, young and old, in attending a class. A group of girls studying family problems and working for better relationships in the home reached the conclusion that their learning was going to be a one-sided affair until their parents studied the other side of the situation. They asked the teacher if she would lead similar discussions with their mothers if they could interest them in coming. Through the initial effort of these girls and the enlisted help of the parent-teacher association such a class was organized.

First-hand contacts always help in promoting any work. The teacher may interest women through her home project visits. She may learn the names of other women in the community and drop in to see them when she is in the neighborhood. Usually a girl in the school classes will be glad to introduce her. Her visit may be explained by her wish to see something the woman has—her flower garden, a quilt, an old sea chest; or to find out how she does something—cures ham, makes beaten biscuit.

If some of the women have expressed interest in a class, the teacher may find out who the leaders are and call on them. Stating the problem and telling what she feels able to give them, she should ask for their advice. In her suggestions as to units to offer, the wise teacher will stick rather closely to what she feels she can do successfully. This does not mean that she will be unwilling to make further preparation, but only that she recognizes that a good unit will require a great deal of work at best and that planning should begin on a sound foundation. If she has enjoyed home care of the sick with her day class, is a good cook, and has been successful in directing home-improvement projects, she can talk safely about work along these lines.

Once the work is started, interesting, worth-while instruction will do much of its own promoting. One pupil tells another what she is getting, and the work grows. The teacher should not count on this entirely, however, because she wants the work to spread out, reaching a wide range of people, and not stay within a certain circle. She should be constantly alert concerning people who have not yet shown an interest and concerning ways through which they may be attracted to the classes.

Problems of Organization

Getting a class started presents many problems. The place of meeting must be agreed upon. Some groups want to come to school. They like to feel a part of the public-school system. This is especially true if the home economics department is attractive and homelike. If a group is not interested in coming to school or if the members live too far to come there, the question arises of using a local center or the homes of the members for meeting places. The place should be suited to the type of work to be done. Tables are essential if garments are to be cut out; stoves, if actual cookery work is to be done. Good lights are necessary for many kinds of work. Sometimes the class gets along best by meeting in different homes. At other times one or more women, centrally located, may open their homes to the group. Usually it is better to meet in different homes at the beginning. Women who are wanted most in the class may not feel free to come if the meetings are held in the home of someone they do not know very well or in a home much better than their own.

The time of meeting must be worked out to suit the women and the teacher. This means deciding on the time of year, the day, and the hour. Women who work out-of-doors will be limited in the seasons in which they can come. Road conditions may prove another determining factor in selecting the time. Classes held near the time of the Christmas holidays are usually unsatisfactory. The end of the school year will not suit the teacher. Some groups, after finding a convenient time, prefer class meetings twice a week to finish up what they have started. This is especially true in clothing construction. Although the women expect to learn things

which will be useful always, they are at work on garments which the family will wear now. They have arranged their homework to sew, and they want to get on with it. Interest lags with a long, drawn-out period on any one job.

The length of unit must also be agreed upon. The short unit, dealing with problems rather closely related to one aspect of homemaking, is usually most successful. In this way the group can get in advance a general idea of what is to be done and the period to be given to it. The teacher who has time may offer two or three units during the year, the single units running from eight to eighteen lessons each. Even where the home economics classes are part of a larger adult program, the teacher will find it to advantage to break the long period into short units, definitely organized.

The length of the class period and the time of day must be settled. The teacher will do well to plan on a minimum of two hours, even though the formal class period may not extend much over an hour. The type of unit will determine in large measure the length of the lesson. A discussion lesson may round out very nicely in an hour to an hour and a half. The demonstration or laboratory-type lesson in which the women are working may take two or two and a half hours. The length of lesson and the time it is to begin should be agreed upon and adhered to except in emergencies. A heavy rain at the time the women would be leaving home may cause a discussion lesson to be postponed until they can come. If the women are working on special problems of their own, those present may begin, and any general discussions, demonstrations, or work of interest to the entire group may be postponed until the others come. The teacher should plan to arrive before the scheduled time and to stay sufficiently past the hour so that the group will not feel she is in a hurry to get away. Some of the most fruitful hours of adult work come in informal contacts before and after the regularly scheduled class time or in allowing a good discussion to run on for another half hour because everyone is interested in it.

The time of day depends upon when the group and the teacher can come. If women live close to the meeting place, night may suit best, since the men or older children can care for the small children. In other cases, afternoons may be best. With daytime classes, caring for the small children and having the class early enough

for the women to get home to prepare supper present problems. Sometimes home economics girls can be drafted in small groups to care for the children. It is good experience for them and allows the mothers to give undivided attention to their work.

Selecting the Unit

As a background for planning the instruction to be given, the teacher should know the needs of the community and the students and be able to interpret this knowledge into needed learning. With this as a background, she can then plan instruction suitable for the group. The unit should be both something the teacher feels she can do well and something the group wants to do very much. This does not mean that the teacher will have all the knowledge and experience needed or that she cannot call on other people to contribute to the unit. Nor does it mean that a group of women who want new suits will necessarily get them made at school even though the teacher can do such work exceptionally well. They must be willing to take the time to do the learning necessary to make them. A teacher frequently has to get over to some members of a class the difference between their learning to do a thing and working the teacher to get it done. The woman who really wants to learn to alter patterns should be encouraged to bring a picture of the dress she wants and another pattern to alter in making it. The woman who wants to get a dress made without buying a pattern falls into a different class and requires different treatment.

The teacher will do well to talk over possibilities for units with several of the group before the class meets. Final decision as to what is to be given may be held over until the first lesson. This should, however, be more than an organization meeting. The teacher should have planned a definite lesson, somewhat shorter than the other lessons will be but related to what she wants to give and has reason to believe the women want. It can be definitely tied up with things she knows they are doing at home. The first lesson is extremely important. Some of those who come will not make up their mind until after that lesson whether to join the class or not. Others will go away from a good lesson ready to urge their friends and neighbors to come. An important part of the first

lesson is for the individual members to feel that they have gotten acquainted with the teacher and that she is interested in them as people and wants to know them. Those in the class who are not acquainted with each other should be introduced. For many women the companionship offered by an adult class and the feeling that others have similar problems to theirs are among its greatest values.

One teacher found a group with two distinct interests at the first meeting—young mothers whose problems of child rearing were just beginning and women past middle age whose problems with small children were over, so they said. The first group wanted help with their small children. The second wanted home care of the sick as they were called on to nurse in their children's families or among the neighbors. The group was too small to divide. The teacher led the young mothers to see that health, prevention of spread of disease, and looking after the children when they were sick or hurt were important aspects of their job. She was also successful in getting the older women to realize that small children entered very prominently into caring for the sick in the home even when they were not the ones sick, that the person doing the nursing frequently had to give general oversight to the well-being of children, as well as more specialized care to the person sick. The class then united on a unit which proved entirely satisfactory to both groups.

Sometimes the teacher's plans and the interests of the women, although apparently far apart in the beginning, do work together. A teacher who was planning for an adult class in a community in which she had done much visiting in connection with home project work saw better lighted and more convenient work areas as the greatest need. A quiet-spoken member of the group expressed a quite different need when she said the women would like to learn how to fix themselves so they wouldn't look like country folks when they went to town. The teacher decided to give them what they wanted, but as soon as teaching began the women saw that they must also learn easier ways of doing their work and have more convenient kitchens if they were to have time to do these things.

A teacher may find it an advantage to teach two aspects of

work parallel to each other. An outlying rural school had no place for cooking, but the women wanted to know more about foods. They were willing to stay two hours as the men were doing in a class in agriculture. The teacher thought it best, however, to divide the time between health and food study. For the first forty minutes the teacher had a unit on health, first aid, simple care of the sick, prevention of the spread of disease. A second unit on marketing, simple nutrition, menu making, and cookery problems followed. Each evening the teacher brought certain dishes in which the group were interested, prepared by her high-school classes. The women kept their home menus and grocery lists showing purchases and costs, bought different brands of food, and tried out new recipes at home. A few volunteers brought finished products weekly for class discussion. Sometimes men and women in rural centers unite for a discussion of home-life problems for the first part of the evening, the groups then separating for the study of problems of special interest to each under the agriculture and home economics teachers.

Interest in a unit to follow may be built up during the preceding lessons. A teacher may be disappointed because a group wants to sew when she knows their meals are poorly balanced and the food they prepare unappetizing. She may feel that another group should study about children instead of the food preparation they want. Many opportunities may be found for arousing the interest of a group in these other lines while giving them what they want. Showing the work of high-school girls, telling them of home project work, or referring to an article read is often all that will be needed to arouse an interest in these other problems.

Teaching Procedures

Every lesson must count in teaching adults. Their desire for learning centers around immediate interests. Many other things demand attention, and class attendance competes with other possible choices in their use of time. They are out of the habit of going to school and will come only if the instruction interests them, has immediate value. They must also gain assurance that they can learn. Some have been out of school so long or have had

so little formal schooling that they are doubtful of their ability to do "school work." Each lesson should be a unit in itself. Members should leave each class feeling that something real has been accomplished. A good lesson, however, will also point to learning to be taken up later, keep alive their desire to continue in the class. The teacher who is used to dealing with adolescents frequently overlooks these factors influencing adult interest, and class attendance falls off. Few adult classes can be taught successfully by the same procedures as in even good day-school work.

The demonstration method is often most effective in food preparation. The women are interested, but they are tired and a little self-conscious at working under what they feel is expert scrutiny. The demonstration, if well planned, may also cover more ground, showing how to do three or four things whereas only one or two could be done if all the women were cooking. A good deal of related material can be included as the demonstration goes on: other dishes prepared in a similar manner, variations in the recipe, new things about cookery, points about nutrition, meal planning, buying. Each lesson should cover only a few basic principles but should be illustrated sufficiently to be clear and easily remembered. Women should be asked to help. This both saves the teacher and makes them feel more a part of the work. Different ones may be requested to tell how they do certain things or how they have seen it done. Demonstrations may also be given by class members or by some one especially invited for that purpose. The group may have suggestions to make about whom to ask—one of their members or an outside person.

The demonstration should be given so that all may see, and should be sufficiently informal so that the women will feel free to ask questions and make comments. Constant talkers, however, may cause trouble, especially if they talk to their neighbors instead of to the larger group. The teacher may break this up by asking one of them to help her or to take notes on the points brought out by the class. When cookery work is done in the homes, the foresighted teacher either carries with her the necessary utensils and towels or plans in advance with the hostess or a committee exactly what will be needed, thus saving later embarrassment for everyone. Teachers have found it of value, when the demonstration method

is used, to have several volunteers bring the results of their tryouts to the next lesson for discussion and the clearing up of doubtful points.

In clothing work the women usually want to sew. They may want a good deal of general discussion to be followed by just enough work at school to get them over difficulties, doing the rest at home. In this case, the teacher may discuss styles, colors, and fabrics, the class selecting patterns, finding out how much material is needed, and bringing the cloth the next time. The next lesson may be a discussion of their materials, special points to watch in working with them, and a demonstration of altering and laying on patterns, followed by each member's looking over her pattern and straightening out any previous difficulties she may have had in altering or laying on patterns, the cutting then being done at home. Other groups may know very little about sewing or, not having good machines, tables, and lights, want to do all the work at school.

The conference procedure or a modification of it is an exceptionally fruitful method for discussion groups. The teacher will usually have to do a good deal of guiding with women who are not used to such methods, but much that is of worth can be drawn from the experiences of almost any group if the teacher knows both how to go after it and how to use it when she has gotten it. Such teaching also has the advantage of making the members feel a more vital part of the class. It requires tact to keep a class from taking sides based on personal opinion or to get a group to approach a problem open-mindedly when they are adding their experiences to the discussion. In general, the least desirable type of class is the one consisting of talks. An informal presentation of the subject, followed by free discussion, may work out very well, but if the talk goes on very long the group fails to participate when an opening comes.

A teacher may find it desirable to promote a class but use the services of others largely for the instruction. The teacher, mentioned earlier, who united the group on home nursing and care of children invited a doctor's wife, who was a trained nurse, to discuss pre-natal care and the principal's wife, who was a former home economics teacher and who had two healthy, wholesome chil-

dren, to talk about behavior problems. Another teacher in the school, with special training in child development, discussed recreation and play for small children.

Panel discussions have been used successfully with large groups.[4] In these discussions a small group discusses a problem before the entire class, endeavoring to bring out all sides of the situation. The members of the audience are then given the opportunity to participate, asking questions of the panel members or expressing their own opinions. The forum discussion[5] has also proven a popular and effective procedure in teaching large groups of adults. In this type of meeting, a talk on a topic of general interest is given by a speaker who not only knows his field but can speak in a way that interests a lay group. The speaker or a special discussion leader then leads a discussion, the audience participating by asking questions or expressing opinions of their own.

Home Visits to Adult Pupils

Home contacts are important in adult work as well as in day-school teaching. Home visits should be considered part of the job. Entrance to the home may be made by stopping to see a member who was absent, offering to go home with a woman who has raised a question concerning a home problem—why the machine doesn't stitch well, how to make over a coat for Mary, whether a dress is worth dyeing. The teacher may not be able to answer all the questions the group raises, but she should be able to help the women see what to think about in answering them and tell where help may be secured.

The teacher is interested in the women's feeling that the work is worth while. They may enjoy the social contacts enough to continue or to be satisfied with a few recipes or with help in making the particular garment on which they are sewing. The good teacher, however, wants to know whether the farm women who planned balanced meals in the fall when food was plentiful can apply these same principles at the end of the winter when variety is much more limited and whether they will change their garden

[4] See pp. 279-282.
[5] Spafford, *op. cit.*, pp. 315-316.

program or canning plans for the summer in order to meet these problems better another year. The teacher is interested to know whether the class that made over fall and winter clothing can use this same learning when the spring wardrobe needs to be replenished and can clean and store the winter clothing properly. She will want to know if the relationship situation between Mary and her older brother, Susan and her father, has improved; if the talks on planned family spending have helped the family; if the kitchen is any more convenient or the house better cared for since these problems were studied. A good many teachers in small communities, working with local groups, follow up the intensive unit with three or four lessons later for this purpose. These lessons may be given monthly after the regular unit is completed or in a series of weekly lessons three or four months later.

Some teachers have been quite successful in getting the members to try out their learning and report back the next lesson, the reporting simply meaning that they tell of their tryouts at home and the results they had, and that they ask questions concerning difficulties. Some have brought their products to school when this could be done. A few teachers have carried on regular home project programs. The set-up so far as records and reports are concerned has been different from similar work in day school, but the fundamental idea has been the same.

Characteristics of a Good Program

The last few years have seen many changes in the setting up of adult classes. School people have been inclined to think of the program in terms of special standards in regard to organization and the training and experience of teachers. People out of employment with accompanying lowered morale and more leisure time have been instrumental in leading to a different attitude toward adult education. Groups have been brought together to get these people started thinking constructively, doing something worth while that they hadn't done before, learning things they hadn't known. Leaders have been selected with all types of experience and training—persons who could give them something they wanted to know, who had had some experience which they lacked

Some have not been able to hold their groups, but many more have. It is to be hoped that adult education will become a part of the public-school program, that the adults will ask for it and make use of it when it is offered, and that the school officials will provide for it. The whole plan for adult education should be remade in the light of successful experience. Forum groups for open discussion of problems of interest have proven most interesting and valuable and should continue. Groups finding a leader among their own number have carried on worth-while discussions on problems of mutual interest. Information given should be reliable, and the school officials perhaps may help best there by providing reference libraries, books, bulletins, and magazines from which groups may find their own data as they become experienced in studying their problems.

The success of the adult program may be measured in many ways. A program is successful if it is reaching a large number of persons in the community. Limitations on the teacher's time may prevent this when everything else would make it possible. She may do her best service for a community in promoting group meetings that are taught by other people. She may give them help in preparing for their teaching job and do less actual instructing herself. That may be more worth while than teaching only a small group herself. Other criteria apply both to the program and to single classes. Worth-while instruction is built around the needs, desires, and interests of the group, not what some one else wants for them but what the members recognize as important. This recognition of need may have grown out of promotional work or a previous unit taught by the teacher. Regular and prompt attendance is another mark of successful adult teaching. Group participation in the discussions and demonstrations, questions asked, experiences offered, and personal problems brought either for group discussion or for teacher aid are indications that the members are finding help in the instruction. A further sign of good work is that the program broadens in scope from year to year, that the group is asking for more and different help. The best proof that the program is good, however, is that the members are using their learning in their living, in meeting home and com-

munity needs. The instruction is solving daily problems, helping to make housekeeping easier and home life more satisfying.

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CHAPTER XXII

HOME ECONOMICS AND THE WHOLE SCHOOL PROGRAM

The program of home economics in any school gains significance in terms of both the field itself and its influence on the lives of students as it becomes a part of the whole school program. A home economics program attains breadth as it is extended into out-of-class activities, cooperates with other groups, draws on and contributes to other fields. Few of the objectives of education today can be achieved by a teacher or department working alone. A program attains depth through long-time planning. Many of the goals of greatest worth need a forward look of several years if they are to be realized. Family and community cultural patterns, deep-seated prejudices and ways of living are not changed in a year.

The Need for a Program of Work

Curriculum making is instructional planning. A second type of planning is necessary if the objectives of home economics are to be achieved. A school system has resources outside the department that are helpful to home economics: library facilities, a lunchroom, industrial arts and vocational agricultural departments. It has certain routine requirements: general assembly, special activity period, faculty meetings. The school has need for services of the home economics department: serving a football banquet, borrowing furnishings for the school play, using the department for the senior party. The needs of the students, the homes, and the community have influenced the setting up of the curriculum. These individuals and agencies have resources also which will be helpful in putting over the home economics program: county health units, shopping facilities, civic clubs, homes nicely furnished, yards landscaped, lawyers, doctors, successful homemakers. The community needs the help of the department: help with its

program to improve housing, civilian defense, the baby clinic, the parent-teacher association round-up. Home economics has many mediums through which its goals may be attained: class instruction, adult classes, home economics clubs, special programs. All the assistance home economics needs from other people and agencies, all the things the department can do for other groups, must be studied and evaluated and a working program planned for the year.

A long-time plan should be the ultimate goal. Home economics has few outstanding achievements to report for any community for a given year. A new building may be provided or the term of employment extended, but even material progress such as this is built on a foundation of previous work. Health practices changed, food habits improved, and family relations altered take even more time and are less easily measured in their beginning, for such growth is based on changed attitudes and ideals as well as on the new knowledge and techniques acquired.

Getting Acquainted with the School

The importance of home economics' becoming a part of the general program of education has been discussed.[1] Every school has its special set-up with which the teacher must become familiar, adjusting her personal activities and the work of the department into the routine of the school system. The teacher must find out the practice and any special regulations concerning staff meetings, the time teachers are on duty, whether an official reporting of arrival and departure is desired. Some principals require teachers to check in and out; others, that they come by the office to read general announcements posted on the bulletin board. Some schools set aside an afternoon a week for staff meetings whether there is anything worth while to talk about or not; others have meetings only on call. The teacher needs to know the regulations concerning study hall, excuses for absence, sending children on errands about the building and off the campus. No matter what her own feeling concerning the regulations and practices in regard to routine matters, she should fall in line with the school system.

[1] See pp. 7-8.

She may seek an opportunity to change some of them later in worth-while ways, but should endeavor to do this only after she has established herself in her own work, shown that she uses good judgment in the area definitely her responsibility.

The home economics teacher who looks for teaching materials within the classroom only is missing many valuable educational opportunities. Many high-school girls have no small brothers and sisters, or, if they have any, cannot study them objectively. The kindergarten and primary grades may provide contacts for observing children in undirected situations and for securing information about health habits in a community. Records of health examinations, if available for the same children over a period of years or for children in the lower grades for purposes of comparison with the high school, may suggest trends in health conditions.

Athletic teams in training, undernourished children, and students with no particular difficulties but interested in gaining or losing weight offer food problems for study. Members of the family or students having serious diet troubles may provide special situations to be worked out in cooperation with a physician. All such actual cases are superior to hypothetical problems in arousing interest and in their real teaching value. The school lunchroom has rich possibilities: observation of practices in food selection, planning the best lunch to be selected for a certain price, working out recipes within the price allowed, calculating the cost of dishes served, studying the bills over several months to find out the range of prices for different foods.

The building and grounds are an ever-present laboratory for making studies and for trying out in practice the principles learned. Home economics instruction emphasizes health practices desirable both in personal living and in living conditions. For a large part of the day, the school plant is the environment for those in school. The home economics classes should be greatly interested in the manner in which the health needs for pure water, adequate heat, good air, and sufficient, well-directed light are being met. They are concerned with the protection given to health through general cleanliness, toilet facilities, and provision for waste disposal. No reading about good health standards can contribute as much material of value as a study of health conditions centering in the

school buildings and grounds. The reading will still be necessary in order to find what points to consider and what are desirable standards. Learning to see things is important if home economics instruction is to be applied. After a recognition of the true situation the pupils should think through to ways of improving conditions when needed, to the placing of responsibility, and to their share in the work.

The principles learned in art may be applied in the hanging of pictures and in the arrangement of flowers throughout the building, in the planning of the stage setting for assemblies, in the rearrangement of furniture in the principal's office and the teachers' restroom. There is also ample opportunity in the building to try out housekeeping practices and certain types of home repairs. A teacher who is alert to the teaching possibilities around her will be rewarded by the pupils' growth in ability to see applications of classroom learning in real situations.

The Contribution of Other Departments

Home economics combines many areas of learning. It makes application of the principles from a variety of fields—psychology, sociology, art, science, and ethics. Some of these fields, however, are not secondary-school subjects at the present time. Home economics also has much in common both in source materials and in activities with English and the social studies.

The English classes are interested in getting acquainted with some of the best literature, with fostering a love for good reading, and with oral and written expression. The literature of the different periods is filled with accounts of home life, the way people live and secure their living, the attitude of parents toward children and of children toward the older generation. If the home economics teacher is to make use of the opportunity afforded here, she will need to familiarize herself with some of the selections being read in the different classes, in order that she may discuss with the teacher the contribution to be made to home economics by these readings and in order that she may raise, in home economics classes, questions which will arouse the interest of the girls in looking for the pictures of home life portrayed there.

In composition the teacher works for clear expression of ideas through a variety of mediums—descriptive and informational articles, discussions and debates, editorials and news items. The pupils are concerned in acquiring the ability to speak and write clearly and interestingly. Home economics is rich in materials which may be used in the English classes. It also has need for improved skill in formal oral and written expression. The teachers in these two fields may well cooperate to the mutual advantage of both fields and of the students concerned. The home economics teacher can familiarize herself with the various kinds of expression being emphasized in the different years of study. She can then lay before the English teacher the opportunities within home economics as well as the needs of the field. She should expect to fit her requests into the English course. Some of the possibilities are stories of work done, organization of the speaking part of a demonstration, informational and news articles for the local paper, talks to accompany a fashion show or an exhibit of toys for Christmas, playlets on table manners or children in the home, a discussion on buying or renting a home. Such a rich fund of materials, opened up to the English classes, should be a real gain to them, and in turn ability to express themselves better should add to the satisfaction of the students in the home economics classes.

The basic principles of science are part of the groundwork of home economics. The more recent books make application to the simple problems of everyday life. The home economics teacher can enrich further the science teacher's store of applications by acquainting him with the home conditions which she finds in her visiting and with the relation of home economics to science. Biology, physics, and chemistry are built on laws which apply in their operation to all areas of homemaking. In the newer educational procedures teachers are vitally concerned not only that students learn fundamental principles but that they also learn to recognize them in operation and to use them in a variety of situations, thus better preparing themselves to meet successfully new and unforeseen problems. The home economics teacher will need to see clearly the relationship between science and home economics. The teachers of the two fields should together set up common objectives concerning the science learning which the pupils need,

and each teacher assume definite responsibility for presenting certain materials and directing to certain applications. Some familiarity with the scope of the work in the other field and the emphasis being placed upon the application of the different principles will add greatly to the results attained in both science and home economics.

Art has many basic principles which need to be applied in home economics: the selection of clothing and the accessories to a costume, the selection and use of furniture and furnishings, and the planning of meals and the serving of food. The ability to recognize beauty in common things—a sunset, a bowl of flowers, sunlight through a prism, shadows in the creek—adds greatly to the joy of living even amid simple surroundings. If the school has an art teacher, the same cooperation may be worked out here as in science. The home economics teacher may also arrange to carry out in concrete materials certain plans made in the art class, designs for initials and monograms, color combinations for a costume or a room being done over as a home project, a design for a dress. Skill acquired in lettering will be helpful in making posters to interest the first-grade pupils in eating more fruit and vegetables and in preparing signs for the fair exhibit.

The social-science teacher may never have thought of calling the attention of the class to the relation between great events in history and problems of home life. America was discovered at that time because the courts of Europe were interested in rare spices for their cookery and fine silks for their costumes. More people migrating to this new world have sought a higher level of living than ever sought religious freedom. Few history students appreciate the changes in home life in England brought about by the Industrial Revolution. Many do not see today what war means to family living. The study of government is rich in related materials: the change in woman's place in government, laws affecting the family, the increasing responsibility accepted by organized society for the welfare of the home and the family.

Cooperation among the various fields to the enrichment of all may be brought about by the mutual understanding of common objectives and the materials within each field through which these objectives may be met. The home economics teacher needs to

see the relation between the different areas of materials, to appreciate the possibilities of joint endeavor, and to take the initiative in making a joint working plan. She will need to be willing to fit her requests into the plans of other teachers when she is asking for cooperation.

Some home economics teachers as well as teachers in other fields set up the goals to be worked for in their department without taking into account the work being done elsewhere. They go ahead as if the entire responsibility for education were theirs alone. Instruction is modified very little, if any, by the learning acquired in health, art, and science, and through home training. Economy demands that the objectives for any field be based on a knowledge of the needs and interests of the individual and of the home and on the learning which the class can reasonably be expected to get from other sources under existing conditions. Home economics need not become concerned that such a close tie-up will seriously delimit its field. The present educational trend is toward integration, and the integration points toward a centering around social institutions and functions rather than around fields of knowledge. Home economics, broadly planned, falls in line with such a conception of education, and its materials should be much more widely used throughout the entire educational program than they have been in the past.

The Offerings of Home Economics to the School Program

Home economics can gain much from the opportunities offered for working with other groups both in the school and the community. The very nature of the subject makes for a strong tie between it and many fields. Home economics may suffer both from trying to answer every demand made upon the department and from seeing nothing of value to be done outside its own four walls. It is a serious problem to know how much time to give to outside demands even though the activities are most worth while.

Cooperation is a much-abused term. Frequently it is used to mean doing anything the other person asks. The home economics teacher is, then, uncooperative if she refuses any request made of her. The real meaning of cooperation lies in recognizing end goals

of value to both groups. The results to be attained may be different for each, but worth while nevertheless for both. The joint contribution of time, thought, and effort required for carrying out the activities should be weighed in relation to the return in desirable growth to the pupils and of benefit to the school and the community, before the final decision concerning participation is made.

Just as home economics may ask help of other departments, so other departments may ask help of it: the father-and-son supper by the agricultural boys, the football banquet, the principal's dinner to the school board, and meals for the visiting football teams. The English teacher wants help in costumes for the play, and the music classes are getting up an operetta. The art students will plan the scenery and costumes, but the home economics department is asked to do the sewing. The elementary teachers cooperated with the child-study unit, and now they need help in getting ready for the spring festival.

The establishing of a desirable working relationship between the home economics department and the rest of the school and the community is important. The first step is for the department itself to have a definitely planned program, goals toward which the classes are working and activities in mind which will be mediums for reaching the results desired. If the planning of this program has been a joint teacher-pupil enterprise, the girls will be constantly informing other people both of what they are working on now and of what they intend to do later. This will tend to cause groups that need help to see that activities outside the program should be fitted into the program if the work being done is not to be disrupted constantly. A program planned by teacher and pupils has another advantage in that the pupils will be able increasingly to assist in evaluating requests for help and in reaching conclusions in regard to what they can afford to do.

The teacher with a planned program will have definite points to present to the principal and superintendent. She will want to ask their advice concerning the larger objectives and the activities through which they may be attained and to report progress from time to time. Too many school officials and teachers in other fields see home economics as miscellaneous activities carried out in a foods or clothing laboratory, jobs that use up the time and are

perhaps valuable in themselves but not definitely headed toward attaining larger goals. They see no difference between laundering basketball sweaters when studying textiles and doing it today because the coach wants them clean for the next game. Making a dress with its study of color, materials, and styling and with its new construction processes is no more valuable for the class than sewing up twenty-four rainbow prints for the glee club, because to them both jobs are sewing and nothing more.

The home economics teacher in planning the program should anticipate requests for outside activities, which may be made, to see which ones can be used in the regular instruction. All schools want some special meals during the year, and all home economics teachers want the classes to have such practice. If rightly planned, the need for one may become the opportunity for the other. The teacher may decide that first-year girls will have skill enough to serve simple refreshments to a large group and that three or four practices with foods of different types is desirable. The second-year class is stressing family meals, and an opportunity to serve a few fairly small semi-formal meals will be to their advantage. The most advanced class should have experience in one or two really large group meals.

Looking over the probable needs of the school, there is the parent-teacher association with its monthly meetings and the annual art exhibit with one special social evening. The first-year girls can have three or four experiences serving sandwiches and hot chocolate, cookies and iced tea. A dinner for the school board and a luncheon for all high-school officers take care of the needs of the second group. The father-and-son supper and the football banquet can be handled by the third class. The football banquet is the only seasonal activity. After Thanksgiving seems the best time for that. The rest can be fitted easily into the teaching plans. The teacher with these activities in mind will go to the principal with her tentative plans, emphasizing the experiences she wishes her classes to have, the groups they have thought of, and ask him for any substitutions he would like to make and then for final approval of the completed plans. Such an approach calls attention to three things: that there is a planned home economics program; that activities to be done in class are selected for their teaching

value; and that there is a limit to the number of activities which can be done profitably.

The same general procedure may be followed in other types of activities. The teacher and the girls would like to plan stage settings for one entertainment. They set out early to find out what the different teachers have in mind for the year. The music department is making plans for a fall festival with a rural setting and for a Dutch operetta in the spring. The senior play in the late winter will have a southern colonial background, and the junior play near the end of the year will be a mountain folk story. The school has no art department, but the second-year girls will be studying art early in the second semester. The Dutch operetta seems an excellent medium for testing their learning in regard to color, balance, and rhythm. They offer to plan the costumes and general background and to find samples of suitable materials for carrying out their plans, but they have decided they cannot take class time to make the costumes. The home economics third-year class would like to work on the mountain-folk story but it will be too near commencement time, so they agree to work out the costumes for the colonial period. Most of the girls' costumes will be borrowed from the homes, but they will need to be fitted and provided with accessories. Easily made costumes for the boys will need to be selected, and patterns and materials decided upon. The first-year class sews well enough to make one or two of the boys' costumes to be used as models by the mothers and sisters in making the rest of them at home.

Some one is always having an accident around the school. It may be a scratch on the hand, a bloody nose, or a torn shirt. The home economics department has first-aid materials, needles, and thread. The girls know something about using them, and the classes are constantly being interrupted. These things must be attended to, however. The class in its health unit decides to try to work out a solution to the problem. They agree upon the supplies needed and the amount to be kept on hand. Using pasteboard boxes as working materials, they plan the size and arrangement of a cabinet which the boys make in shop. The boys' and girls' athletic associations are asked to finance the medical supplies. The home economics club becomes responsible for the mending kit

that is included. A schedule is worked out for boys and girls with first-aid training who are in study hall during different periods of the day to be called on for first aid if a need arises. All requests are then sent to the study-hall teacher instead of to the home economics department. Real emergencies, of course, may call for more expert aid.

Other requests for help will be made. Visiting football teams will need to be fed. Perhaps the advanced class in its management or foods unit can work out several suitable menus which can be prepared at a moderate cost and within a reasonable time. Grocery lists and work schedules can be planned. The food is to be prepared and served in out-of-class time. The home economics club or a group of girls, wishing to get experience and earn a little money, may submit the plan to the principal for approval and then to the athletic association. The team charges for their games. The girls charge for their services. One seems as fair as the other. The same provision may be made for preparing a hot dish in cold and rainy weather. Girls in the classes may be skilful in making cakes, in preparing refreshments for a party, or in planning costumes for a masquerade. A person who asks for such help may be referred to these girls. The teacher in this way shows her interest even though she cannot meet the request directly.

The home economics teacher may have as part of her job the managing of a school lunchroom. Certainly she should feel some responsibility for seeing that all the children have instruction in nutrition in relation to health and that facilities are such that they have an adequate lunch at noon. This in the small school may mean assuming major responsibility for making plans for both. Some aspects of the most simple provisions for a lunch at school, even though no more than the supplementary hot dish, can be made educational. In other cases it is largely repetition and may need to be cared for in other ways or by the home economics club.

The home economics department should try equally hard to fit its needs into the work of other departments. If the ironing board is needed at a time when no class is doing shop work at that level of difficulty, it should be purchased or else a boy should be asked to make one outside of class time for pay. The requests for newspaper articles should be made early, to be carried out when

that type of expression is being taught. Classes should be dismissed promptly, and extra time of pupils from classes or from study hall requested only in real emergencies. Looked at from the other angle, the home economics teacher frequently trespasses as greatly as she thinks the other teachers do, by interfering with a smoothly running organization.

Requests made of the department are frequently not for service but to borrow furnishings and equipment or the department itself. The science teacher needs a kettle for heating water; the second-grade teacher, a pail for soaking pulp to make paper. The sixth grade has been studying freezing and wants to borrow the ice-cream freezer. A group that is planning an assembly program needs a picture, a table scarf, and a bowl for flowers. The department should be willing to lend its possessions when it does not interfere seriously with the work and when the conditions of borrowing insure careful treatment and the return of the property in good condition. The teacher may ask the help of the girls in working out a plan for lending which will be acceptable to both the lender and the borrower. A receipt, naming the article, date of borrowing, and date to be returned, signed by the person assuming responsibility for it, may be required for articles taken from the department.

When the request is to use part or all of the department, an agreement should be reached in regard to the purpose for which it is to be used, the time it will be needed, and the persons assuming the responsibility for its care and cleaning. The girls can help in working out a plan which allows for the use of the department by other groups but does not interfere with their needs. They may decide to lend it only when some home economics students can be there to show where things are and to direct the putting of the place in order. Such groups should not be expected to clean up or put the department in order unless special arrangements are made for this service.

People who borrow the use of the department should furnish their own dish cloths, towels, and table linens. Storerooms to which they do not need access should be locked. A reasonable charge may be made for the use of electricity or other fuel for cooking purposes unless the superintendent definitely says that the

school will assume this expense. If the department or its furnishings are damaged or not left in good condition, the persons accepting the responsibility for the loan should be notified at once.

All that has been said is not to be interpreted as meaning that nothing is to be allowed to upset the planned program. Emergencies will be recognized, and the department will offer assistance just as any good neighbor does. The leading lady in the play has an accident to her dress. The letters for the basketball sweaters have just arrived, and the boys want them sewed on for the Friday special assembly program. An epidemic of influenza, measles, whooping cough has hit the community, or perhaps only a few cases have developed. The good teacher takes time to give instruction in care of the sick, in suitable diet, in prevention of the spread of disease. Water is up in the lowlands and people have been driven out of their homes. A cyclone passed through a neighboring community. Class time is spent in mending garments collected for the homeless. Plans are made for assisting in cooking food to be served in the emergency kitchen downtown. The regular work may be completely upset, but there are other values to be gained. Social understanding and responsibility are best taught through seeing and taking one's place in social situations.

An Integrated Educational Program

The trend toward an integrated educational program has been discussed.[2] It has expressed itself in the main in two ways: in the uniting of subjects into fields of knowledge and in the centering of instruction around life activities. The progressive elementary schools have been more interested in life activities than in integrated fields of knowledge. Home economics has not as yet occupied an important place in the integrated program. A few schools have worked out worth-while activities, centering around education for home life. The home as a basic social institution and its fundamental influence in the life of the child at that period and the years preceding, however, have not been emphasized. Little attention has been given to the building of sound habits of personal living, of living with other people, of ideals of home life

[2] See pp. 380-383.

and homemaking. Even less attention is given to understanding the effect on home life of the civic, industrial, and social activities studied. The community water or milk supply or provisions for sanitation are investigated, but not the number of homes having an inadequate milk supply, no running water or sanitary toilets, or the reasons why they do not have them. The making of cotton cloth and shoes and the mining of coal are studied, but little attention is given to the home conditions under which the families of the workers in these industries live or the effect of seasonal employment upon home life. This material must be gradated to the level of the maturity and experience of the group. The elementary program, however, should have as major purposes, first, the orientation of the individual into the everyday personal and family living situations; second, an appreciation and understanding of the more simple problems of home life and homemaking, as well as of the close interrelationship of the welfare of the home, the well-being of the family, and the good of the larger social institutions. Home economics has an important contribution to make in the realizing of both these purposes.

The secondary field has organized, in the main, its integrated program around fields of knowledge. Only a few schools as yet have developed core courses dealing with problems of everyday living, although the trend seems to be in that direction. General home economics represents an attempt to integrate different phases of home economics into a well-rounded course. The attempt within a unit to organize instruction around a function of the home—the feeding of the family, dealing not only with nutrition, food preparation, and marketing, but also with cost in relation to the total family budget, preparation in relation to personal preferences, social relationship problems, and attractiveness of meals—represents an integration of home economics materials around a life activity. Two criticisms of the program in operation may be made: first, the integration frequently does not exist in practice—the unit is still largely food study divorced from concrete problems; the second, the work is still confined to a selected few, usually girls who elect such work. Problems of personal and home living should become the center of a basic core course in the junior high school and again in many senior high schools.

The solving of no social problems of today is of more far-reaching importance than the solving of those which have to do with leading a personally and socially satisfying personal and family life. "Every critical student of secondary education knows that many values of the curriculum that should be made available to all boys and girls can never be made available under the conditions that prevail at the present time. A good example of this is found in the field of home economics. The home economics courses with their attention to health problems, to the home, and to the economics and sociology of the family involve many values indispensable to the education of boys or girls in the modern world. The only hope that these values may be made available lies in the introduction of courses that will cut across subject matter fields, that will be organized around vital problems of contemporary life, and that will make possible the utilization of the most modern methods of teaching."[3] Other fields have much to offer in these integrated personal and home-life courses. The social, biological, and physical sciences, health, art, music, and literature should all be drawn into the planning. Mathematics, English, spelling, and writing, as tool subjects, will have added worth in the eyes of pupils when they are used in solving such important problems.

Home Economics Clubs

Club work has assumed greater importance during recent years as school people have realized both the interest of young people in such activities and their inability and the inability of other agencies to provide worth-while experiences for them. The values in these experiences are of several kinds. Some clubs offer opportunity to follow a hobby. Radio and photography clubs are of this type. Some offer opportunity to have experiences in areas in which students have had little contact. Many schools have art, music, and speech clubs for those who are not taking work in that field. Many clubs provide opportunity for social life along with their more serious interests. Some render certain school or community service in addition to their other activities—sponsor the preparing

[3] J. H. Newlon, "The Tendency towards Integration in the High School Curriculum." *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, 7:399. March, 1933.

and giving of Thanksgiving baskets or the keeping of fresh flowers in the general office of the school. All such clubs offer opportunity to develop leadership and to learn to work cooperatively by planning and carrying out activities largely on their own. The good club has a minimum of teacher supervision. Teacher advisers are necessary, but those who do least are worth most provided they do the things which students, because of their inexperience, cannot do for themselves. The adviser should challenge student thinking, be sure that they have thought far enough ahead to foresee and plan to overcome probable difficulties, and then let them go ahead.

Many schools have home economics clubs. Some are made up only of home economics students and sometimes only of students in good standing. Others admit anyone interested in home economics activities whether he is studying or has studied in the field. A few schools have clubs for students that are not taking home economics. These schools expect the home economics students to enrol in clubs in other areas in which they have had little experience. A club should be organized only when there seems to be a need which is not being and cannot be met so well in other ways. It should not be organized because some one else has one or in order to be able to say that there is one. A club should have a definite purpose or purposes, and its activities should be organized to achieve these purposes. One purpose may be to study in an area in which interest has been aroused in classwork, such as cookery in other lands or vocations for women. A second purpose may be of a social-service nature—to sponsor monthly entertainment programs at a home for the aged, to repair clothes donated for needy children. A third may be social life for the students themselves. Many rural high schools have organizations of Future Farmers and Future Homemakers. These groups often unite in planning a more worth-while recreational program for the entire community, a home-improvement or live-at-home program.

The Program in Working Order

All these activities must finally be put into a plan of work. No common form will be useful. Each teacher must decide for her-

self the plan which will give her in most usable shape what she needs to have before her. The teacher not in the habit of making a program of work finds her greatest difficulties centering around a few major problems. Frequently she fails to see relationships between activities. Each new unit or phase of work is approached as though complete in itself. Home practice and home projects are thought of as activities to be started after the school work is well begun instead of being treated as part of the class instruction from the beginning. Much pupil interest which might be carried over from one activity to another is thus lost. Other difficulties arise from a failure to evaluate the many demands made on the teaching time in terms of the goals set up, and from a failure to find out, before demands are made, the most worth-while opportunities for cooperation in school and community activities. Further difficulties arise from not looking ahead and spreading the load throughout the year and from not allowing a sufficient margin of time for extra demands—planning to hold the adult class after home projects are well started, allowing a few extra days to be used if needed in finishing the afternoon dresses, keeping a safe margin for special requests for play costumes, relief sewing, special emergency instruction in an epidemic of measles or influenza.

The teacher may want to have as a ready reminder what she believes are the major purposes of education as a whole. Certainly she will want as a guide the general objectives of home economics together with the large general behavior patterns and specific abilities which are to be used as final criteria for the more specific teaching activities. Basic learning for the different aspects of home economics and for the teaching units will be developed as the year progresses. The points to receive special emphasis in that particular community need a place in the plan of work: better understanding between parents and children, especially between fathers and adolescent daughters; more food and a wider variety grown at home; more provision for privacy and a greater respect for the rights of others; wholesome recreation within the home for all the members of the family; opportunities for developing creative interests. Such specific goals will not be set up all at once. Even the teacher who knows a community very well is quite likely

to find out new things of importance or change her mind as to the values to stress during the year.

Special needs for emphasis in classroom instruction may be included in the program of work for the year: greater independence; more resourcefulness and initiative in laboratory work; greater use of home problems in planning instruction; increased opportunity for discovering the special interests of pupils and the means provided for developing them. Attention in homework may center around a greater awareness on the part of pupils to the problems at home and to the use which can be made of home economics materials in solving them; managerial aspects emphasized in home project work; a balanced program for the individual girl; home visits made with a definite purpose in mind.

The joint program with agriculture may have as a point of departure the study of home and community needs, resulting in a decision for both teachers to direct instruction and home visiting toward a better understanding between parents and children, in the holding of two or three parents' meetings on the needs and interests of adolescent boys and girls, and in a community project providing a wider and more wholesome range of recreational opportunities for all children. A recognition of the need for an adult class may have grown out of a baby clinic held in the early fall in cooperation with the county board of health. Community projects other than the baby clinic may include cooperation with local relief agencies and civilian defense activities.

Cooperative school projects may be helping the elementary teachers plan instruction in educating for home and family life to be given as part of their regular work, in preparing and serving the football banquet, in giving a father-mother social evening jointly with the agricultural department, in providing a home economics program and exhibit as a part of the commencement-week program. The teaching environment and instructional materials may present many shortages that demand attention. Plans for improvement, made in advance, may result in a good deal of progress along with the regular teaching program in the course of the year. Sometimes the teacher selects the greatest needs for attention: providing books for child study or up-to-date material on nutrition, rearranging the foods laboratory to provide space

for a laundry unit. Again, it may be work done because the pupils can do it as part of their classwork: a collection of new textile materials, illustrations of art principles, short stories picturing home life, a luncheon set made in the house unit.

It is not enough to study the situation and make plans. The various activities must be fitted into a time schedule so that there is no undue pressure at any one time on the teacher, on the girls in a class, or on the department as a whole. The baby clinic may be used as a means of interesting girls in a unit of child development or as a conclusion to such instruction, but it will not be especially successful in either case if it gets jammed in between a football banquet and a term examination. Projects for the advanced groups may have been tentatively planned the spring before, but the final plans need to be completed while beginning girls are centering outside work on home practice in personal improvement. After school closes, the teacher who is employed for longer than the school term may make getting-acquainted visits to new homes likely to be represented in the classes in the fall.

Many activities to be successful call for attention at several places. Judges for the club contest or a speaker for the father-mother evening will need to be selected well in advance of the actual activity. The baby clinic to be held in the fall should, perhaps, be planned the preceding spring. The exhibit for the state fair should be kept in mind through several aspects of the work.

A calendar by months usually is sufficiently definite for working purposes. Activities whose time is set by special conditions must be entered on the calendar first: the inventory at the beginning of the year, visits to new homes, an exhibit at the community fair. Cooperative enterprises, known in advance even though not dependent upon special conditions as to their time, should be tentatively provided for next: exchange of classes with agriculture, the football banquet, furnishing an apartment in the new housing project. A third group represents activities which can be carried out at almost any time if planned ahead: an assembly program, a tea for the mothers, a party for the pre-school children of the neighborhood. The first month's calendar might include, among other activities: visit homes of new students; take inventory; make tentative budget for the year; secure blanks for necessary reports

of school system; plan home projects with advanced classes; introduce projects to beginning group; present summer work of students in an assembly program; discuss community needs with principal and agricultural teacher. The department has a service to render beyond classroom walls. Its work will mean most when seen, planned, and carried out as a part of the large educational program of a school.

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CHAPTER XXIII

HOME ECONOMICS AND THE COMMUNITY

The good school program stems from community needs, is an integral part of the life of the people. It is made by, for, and of those it would serve. Always there will be, within a community and the school, leaders whose insight into problems and whose foresight for solving them go far beyond what people in general see to do or believe can be done. What the school offers, however, will have little meaning except as those it would serve see values for them. That education have worth becomes increasingly important in present-day society. Specialization in industry, the interdependence of people in all their relationships, the far-reaching effect upon others of events in every part of the globe, and the decreasing opportunities for the young to contribute to the economic life of their group are only a few of the situations which make peculiar demands upon the school. Home economics with its concern for personal and home living has an unusual opportunity to make its program a vital part of the community.

Emphasis has been placed throughout this book on a philosophy of education which has its roots in understanding and living the ways of democracy in all the relationships of life.[1] This demands that each field build its educational program on the needs and interests of those being educated, that people learn to live and work together with mutual concern for the well-being of all, that interests and understanding be broadened constantly. This chapter will be an interpretation of these principles in terms of the community and of those problems which most concern home economics. The applications made will naturally have much to do with national defense and with the preservation and improvement of our democratic way of life. They should apply equally in planning for peace and in making democracy work in all our ways of living.

[1] See pp. 15-18.

Some Community Needs Which Concern Home Economics

Each period in history makes its own peculiar demands on education. Major demands today focus on three large areas: national defense with the accompanying necessity to redirect vast amounts of physical and human resources to that purpose; the preservation, improvement, and extension of the democratic way of living; and the re-evaluation and readjustment of ideals and attitudes of human relationships and of physical aspects of living if the fruits of victory are to have real meaning and permanent value. Home economics is concerned with both physical and human aspects of everyday life, the ideals of personal and family living which people cherish, their relationships with each other, and the way in which they use their resources to achieve what they value most. It will not be possible to do more than touch upon some of the community needs which should concern home economics.

Many individuals and families face serious problems of relationship and economics today. They need help in weighing values. There are few families that will not be affected in the next few years by having some member in the front lines of defense. Many will have family members injured and killed. Many young people are marrying to be separated at once by war or industrial demands. Some are marrying with little thought of permanency or the future. Others are forced or think it best to postpone marriage. Situations such as these make the teaching of ideals, of personality adjustments, and of human relationships much more important than ever before. Teaching must be down to earth, deal with situations as they are. At the same time students increasingly will need and want to arrive at fundamental values as guides to living.

The financial situation ahead for many people will be quite different from anything they have ever faced. Many will have a higher money income than they have had in many years; some young people, more than they have ever had. The first reaction to such a situation is to think that they can live better than ever before, have things they have never had. All individuals and families must face today four problems where money is concerned: the first, the higher cost of living; the second, increasing taxes of every

kind; the third, social, and perhaps governmental, pressure to lend money to the federal government through buying defense bonds; and fourth, to contribute one's share to social-service and other relief agencies. To decide what one wants most with the money to be spent for living and to have the knowledge necessary to get it should be an important objective of home economics today. To build up the right attitude toward higher taxes, to realize what they are paying for, and to prepare oneself to take a serious part in governmental affairs are additional objectives which should concern the home economist as well as other school people. With less unemployment in a community and with the higher wage level, there is danger also that some home economics teachers will think the days of depression teaching are over and unconsciously gear their teaching to a higher economic level. Teachers should be certain that they know the situation and teach in terms of it.

Home economics has always been much interested in the protection of health, healthful living conditions, and the care of the sick. Optimum health becomes increasingly important in a crisis such as people face today and increasingly difficult to secure and maintain without great effort. It is desirable that all human resources be maintained at highest capacity. Sickness lowers efficiency; illness uses money needed for other things. It increases the burden on the medical and nursing service. Many people as they endeavor to adjust their finances to a less expensive level of living will not know what they cannot afford to do without, in the interest of both physical and mental health. There is a very real danger that many people, trying to economize on food, will not have the nutritive qualities they need. Food bills of many families can be cut with no loss of what is essential for health if the people know their needs and how to meet them through buying less expensive foods, doing more of their own cooking, and growing and storing their own food. Many who are not forced to economize on housing will economize, because they want something else more. Others will be compelled to because they do not have enough money to buy healthful housing or because it is not available where the jobs are. It is important that home economics help people weigh values in this area, that essentials come first so far as the choice is theirs to make.

A fourth need of the community, making peculiar demands upon home economics at this time, arises from the unavailability of many materials and services which people have come to take for granted. The available quantity of many materials has been reduced. This may necessitate the use of materials with which people are unfamiliar or which they have come to think of as less desirable. It may also demand changes in the processes people use. Aluminum, tin, glass, and rubber are only a few of the materials already available in limited amounts for civilian use. People are asked to conserve electricity. At the same time they are being requested to grow and preserve more food, to give time to civilian defense, to help in relief work. Home economics can help people simplify their living even as they make every effort to maintain fine and wholesome personal and family life in surroundings that are clean and orderly and restful. People must be taught to use less expensive foods, to prepare nutritive and appetizing meals at less cost. They must learn to preserve foods by other means than canning when new containers are needed.

The careful use of one's possessions takes on new meaning today. People have been extravagant in their use of money, time, and material things at every level of living. Throughout the depression home economics proved over and over again that it could help people live better on what they had, even at the lowest level of living. Careful use involves more careful buying. Poor buying is partly a matter of the values people want; partly, lack of knowledge. People need to learn to buy in relation to purpose, to use, and to the care involved. They need also to learn to use more wisely their food, clothing, household furnishings and equipment. Care and repair should take on new meaning in home economics teaching today. Special effort should be made to prevent the lowered morale which comes from letting things go whether it is personal grooming, clothes, or the house. Girls can be taught to care for their hair and skin, to be clean and to have well-cared for clothes through their own efforts. Selection should take on new meaning, each new garment being selected to fill a definite place in the wardrobe.

The ways in which recreational needs are met is of concern to home economics. Life is more serious and purposeful for many

people than it has ever been before. Tensions of all kinds, however, will also be increased. Wholesome fun, relaxation, real recreative activities become increasingly important under such conditions. Too many people have gotten their relaxation in recent years by turning on the radio, going to the movies, or getting into the car. All these types have value. They have broadened and enriched the lives of many people. People, as a whole, however, have long needed a more active type of recreation. Lack of money will curtail the number of movies attended; rationing of tires, reduce the use of autos. Many children and young people will need to be taught to make their own fun—a kind of fun suited to the life and community in which they live. They need to be guided in getting acquainted with the neighborhood—the people and its material resources for recreation. They should be encouraged to develop hobbies and to find people with similar interests. Some of their leisure time should be used in doing things for other people. Some girls may enjoy growing flowers as a hobby, and they may also use these flowers in making life happier for other people.

People are happiest when life seems most meaningful. It is unfortunate that it takes something as destructive as war to give meaning to the lives of many people. Teaching should be so directed that life is as rich and meaningful in the peace that follows. In the meantime, it is extremely important that each group feels that it has a constructive part to play in life today. The home economics teacher should endeavor to help all those she teaches to find positive and constructive ways in which they may help the school, the home, and the community meet their problems. Many can find things to do in the community in both civilian defense and relief work. They may render assistance to individuals, care for the baby for an evening for a woman who works, read to an old lady left alone, help an old man with his garden. They may accept certain home responsibilities to prevent the need for outside labor or to free older members for services they can render best. Growing and preserving food may be a way in which many can help. The home economics teacher can assist them in interpreting their knowledge of nutrition into garden plans for the family. The agricultural teacher can help them in planting and caring for it. A large num-

ber of families in small towns can have gardens at home. Others can secure the use of vacant lots.

Attention has been called to these community needs of interest to home economics—not to set a pattern but to point to some of the things which those concerned with planning the program should think about and the direction in which their solving of the problems may well lie. These will be needs of all communities in this country as long as war lasts. Which needs are most important in a community or which home economics can do most in solving will have to be decided locally. Many communities have been changed greatly by the building up of industries and camps and by the influx of people beyond their ability to care for them. These changes will bring still other needs.

Special Offerings To Meet Emergency Needs

Changing emphasis in home economics courses to meet changing needs is consistent with the philosophy of education expressed here. The present emergency simply opens up more fronts on which these changes should be made. The emergency situation today may and is quite likely to demand the setting up of new courses. More adult education is very certain to be needed. Because of the many demands made upon the time of adults, instruction should be stripped to its bare essentials and given in the shortest time possible. Many will be faced with serious problems of family morale, family relationships, child rearing, family finances, personal and household buying, feeding and clothing the family with less money, conserving materials, protecting health and caring for the sick. These problems may sound no different from those dealt with in the past. Titles may be the same but instruction will need to be more functional, emphasis changed in many respects, and more units offered.

All students should be given instruction at their level of interest and ability in nutrition interpreted into a usable plan for them, in caring for their health, in meeting their buying problems, and in weighing values and using their resources to secure the things they want most. They should also be given the opportunity to learn

the skills needed to meet their problems of everyday living. Specific instruction in caring for the sick in the home should be available for girls to release the more skilled help for more serious needs. Instruction in ways of protecting health and in first aid should be available for both boys and girls. Some communities and some students will have need for special courses designed to prepare for gainful employment, and they should be offered.

Coordinated Effort Among Trained Workers and Special Agencies

Much fine work is being done by different individuals and agencies. Some may overlap or duplicate the work of others. There may also be undesirable omissions when the programs are examined in their entirety. There are values in group judgments as to what should be done and in joint efforts at promoting. The four experimental programs in family-life education mentioned earlier[2] are the best examples of coordinated effort of concern to home economics. In these programs representatives of all groups interested in family-life education have been brought together into a council. The primary purpose of the council is to study the local community, find its needs, and work through existing groups and organizations to meet these needs. "Such a council is not 'just another organization' identified with some special program. It is a clearing house of ideas. It can analyze, investigate, and recommend, but it does not, in and of itself, initiate new undertakings or employ personnel. The school board usually provides it with a person to serve as coordinator, or executive secretary, but each program developed grows out of each council's around-the-table thinking."[3] A study of the work accomplished in these programs during the first two years shows many instances of cooperative effort. Examples include changes in report cards so that the homes and the school may work in closer cooperation in the education of the children; the cooperation of various individuals and agencies in building a small house to study ways in which low-cost housing

[2] See p. 92.
[3] Edna P. Amidon and Muriel W. Brown, *Four Communities Pioneer*, p. 2. Reprint from School Life. U. S. Office of Education. 1941.

can be financed privately; providing better play opportunities for children of all ages.[4]

These programs represent a type of coordinated effort to be sought. Teachers of home economics should become acquainted with them as opportunities present themselves. For the present, however, most teachers will need to be satisfied with cooperation on a smaller scale. Each teacher can make a beginning, however. She can get acquainted with other home economists and with representatives of other agencies having similar concerns. Together they can study the needs of those they are serving, find out what is being done, agree on a division of responsibility in meeting new needs. By such effort more should be accomplished in less time and with a conserving of resources.

Sharing in Community Enterprises

The community will have many activities going on in which home economics can share, many in which the department will be asked to help. Some students will be interested in working for the Red Cross. Others will find other opportunities for service. A teacher may need to decide at what place or places both she and the department can contribute most. There is always grave danger that the teacher may be called upon to use her time in unprofitable ways. She can sew and knit but the day has only a certain number of hours. If she is not careful all her free time may be used in doing things that others with less training and experience can do equally well.

In addition to those activities which a community may initiate, many communities will need to have their attention called to other needs. The people may not be aware of their health problems, the meagerness of the recreational opportunities available to children and young people, the tensions under which many children are living, or the number that are neglected, to cite only a few. These are needs that should be recognized by a community-minded home economist. Her first responsibility will be to make them real to the community. She may then help them use home economics in providing tools for meeting their needs or get other agencies to help

[4] *Ibid.*, p. 2.

them. Coordinated effort will be needed to solve many of them. Classes for adults may help with others. Home economics may render a third service in many instances: provide the balance wheel for fine, wholesome living; help people see the values they cannot afford to lose, least of all in times of great stress and strain.

Ways in Which the Community Can Help Home Economics

Emphasis has been placed on ways in which home economics should change its courses and provide new offerings to meet community needs and how home economics may help the community directly to solve its problems. The community in turn has its responsibilities to home economics. The home economics curriculum should be the outcome of school and community planning.[5] The department must have community support and this must be more than financial. The community must believe in what is being done and encourage students to take the work. It must make available its resources to the department for educational purposes. Many experiences the pupils need for learning can be secured only in the community. Home economics has a contribution to make to vocational guidance which will mean little unless carried over into tryouts in areas which interest individual students. This will be possible only as the community provides them. Students also need work experiences to complement their school study. If they are to be real, the community must provide them. Mention has been made in a previous chapter of the guided home experiences in the form of home practice work and home projects which the school is seeking increasingly for its students.

It is important also that the community provide the atmosphere that students need for fine, wholesome growing up, and that it do its share in educating them. Adults have much to do with the general conditions of living for children—the situations from which they come to school, the atmosphere of family discord, fear, or happiness. They are largely responsible for their having adequate sleep, food, and healthful living conditions, whether they face the world courageously or afraid. Parents need to know what a

[5] See pp. 91-94.

wholesome home atmosphere and desirable living conditions mean in the growing up of children and in their readiness to learn.

Regardless of the ideals which the home economics department stresses in personal and home living, they will mean little to most students unless they see them interpreted into action in life outside. Some one has said that young people will profit most from fewer critics and more good examples. Providing these good examples is a community responsibility. The ways of living which home economics seeks can be attained only as the school, the home, and the community work together to achieve goals mutually agreed upon, and as each understands the other and all work together.

Home Economics Practices Its Philosophy

Home economics will mean most both to the students and to the larger community as it practices what it teaches. Students will learn best as they see its principles in action and as they help interpret them in concrete situations. This means then that the home economics program will be planned carefully, its resources evaluated and then wisely used in attaining the goals set up. The teacher and students will weigh values as they plan, seek to avoid tensions, and undertake no more than they can carry out successfully. Everything possible will be done to simplify work in the department, at the same time maintaining an attractive department and a wholesome working atmosphere. They will endeavor to run economically as a department, sacrificing no important values. They will work to keep the department in good order, avoiding a down-at-the-heel appearance. Throughout the work there will be careful weighing of values as to essentials, wise buying of materials and furnishings, careful use, thoughtful care and repair. Every effort will be made to live the ways of democracy as they work together. They are values the teacher is endeavoring to teach, to be used in life outside the school. They should be lived in the school.

The teacher herself should try, in addition, to practice the home economics she teaches.[6] Many teachers will be touched closely by

[6] See pp. 6-7.

today's happenings. It will not always be easy for them to maintain poise and self-confidence in the years ahead, and yet that is essential if home economics is to serve its best purposes for those they teach. Each teacher may well ask herself to what extent home economics has helped her achieve a functioning philosophy of life; has provided her with wholesome recreational outlets, good health habits, a fine attitude toward family living. Are others aware of these values as she spends her money, uses her other resources, decides upon the services to render to the school and community? Does her use of home economics encourage others to seek help in the area, build up confidence in its values?

Interpreting Home Economics

Education should not be allowed to suffer in any social crisis. This becomes of paramount importance in time of war. No war is fought, paid for, or its peace made and carried out by one generation. Many persons in their later years of schooling today will bear the immediate burdens of war. They and those many years younger will play an important part in making the peace which follows and in building the society for which the war was fought. The education these children and young people receive *now* is of great importance if society is to achieve in the long run the goals for which it is striving.

Learning is always the most important business of childhood and youth. Much of it takes place informally and outside the school. Parents are largely responsible for the contacts through which this learning is acquired in the early years. The larger community shares this responsibility with the family in later years. These extra-school influences affect greatly the attitude of pupils toward schooling. It is important then that those outside the school know what is going on in the school and what they can do to help it attain its goals. They must see formal education as a significant part of life today, something which society cannot do without.

Parents need to know the goals of the school and to see the relationship of the school to the other influences which are at work. They need moreover to understand and appreciate the limitations of the school when outside influences are working in a different

direction from it. School people in turn must face frankly their responsibility in helping the public to see its place in the education of children and to accept its share in the task. Little of value can be accomplished unless the two groups work together with mutual sympathy and understanding.

Children in school too often take going to school for granted. They do not understand the meaning of an education, the long struggle that preceded public education, the large number of children who for one reason or another have no such opportunities now. They fail to see their place and their responsibility in getting an education. They think of education as ceasing when school attendance is over instead of as a continuous process with a period of intensive application in formal schooling during childhood and youth. A different feeling toward organized educational opportunities needs to be built up.

Home economics is expensive from the standpoint of space and furnishings, the size of classes taught, maintenance needed to give adequate instruction, materials required by the pupils, and time given to the subject. It has not yet made a definite place for itself in the thinking of many school people and many parents. All too rarely is it seen as an essential in the growing up of youth—a subject that can contribute to the development of desirable attitudes toward home and family life, to the acquiring of increased ability in living and working with other people, and to an understanding of the meaning of the social progress of the race. Undoubtedly one reason why people have not seen this is because home economics teachers often have fallen short in their teaching. However, in those things being done well, the teachers have frequently neglected to inform the public of their objectives, the methods by which they are to be attained, the areas in which its cooperation is needed, and the ways in which results can be evaluated. All these things make the interpretation of home economics to pupils, school staff, and lay public extremely important.

Attention has already been called to ways in which home economics may contribute to the life of the community. This participation is an effective way of interpreting home economics. Two other mediums are also available. One has to do with informing people of the work of the department; the other, with

making available to them subject matter and experiences in the field. In one they are told about home economics; in the other, they experience it directly. Information about the department may concern itself with the objectives of the program, methods being used to achieve the goals, or the results of instruction. Finished products offer one of the easiest ways of showing the work of the department—a fashion show of garments made, a dinner served the school board, a display of refinished furniture, a home-improvement project. Of necessity any one of these mediums will show only a small segment even of that phase of the work.

There is always danger that people will have a limited conception of home economics, see only a part of what it can and is doing. For that reason special attention should be given to showing the scope of the program: that it deals with human relationships as well as the physical aspects of personal and family living; that food study is marketing, nutrition, planning, preparing, and serving meals, care and preserving food; that learning units center around all aspects of home and family life. It should also be shown that instruction concerns itself with personal and home problems: a schedule that will make work easier at home, dresses to supplement the personal wardrobe, care of a little sister, diet for an anemic brother; that it is concerned with growth in understanding and sympathy between family members, ideals and attitudes for living with other people and for homemaking. Attention should be called to instructional techniques that are directed especially to growth in achieving the ways of democracy, a concern for personality, the extension of group interests and concerns, increase in ability to direct one's own learning and living in ways personally satisfying and socially acceptable.

The opportunities to interpret home economics through giving people experiences in the field is almost unlimited. There is an epidemic of influenza. Menus and suggestions for caring for the sick at home and for preventing the spread of disease are worked out by a home economics class and published in the paper. It is spring. A class has made a special study of the difficulties of having an adequate diet in that community throughout the year. Their study includes suggestions for improving the diet through a better planned garden and through more extensive home preser-

vation of foods, and these materials are published. Points of general social conduct and table manners with special emphasis on the needs of boys are presented at an assembly program just before the football team plays its first game away from home or before the debating team goes on a trip. Adult classes offer another medium for acquainting people with the values in the field.

Timeliness is important in any type of publicity. There are certain events to which home economics activities are naturally related—education week, a project for better housing, a baby clinic by the health unit. To give publicity to home economics at such times is making use of public interest already aroused, and in no way detracts from the original activity. It shows, rather, another agency interested in the same fundamental purposes. For home economics to try to attract attention at some types of activities, however, is not worth the effort. A field or play day when sports have the stage may be such an event. Home economics is not in competition with physical or play activities in the school, and should not have to compete for attention on such a special day. If part of the day is given to viewing school exhibits and part to sports, that is a different matter. Often, however, the exhibits are to be viewed only when anyone is tired of watching the sports.

Seasonal opportunities for putting certain phases of the work before a group are especially pertinent. Reports of home projects will be just as interesting and may bear more fruit with entering students and their families if run in the local paper about the time school opens. An assembly program on good manners will mean more before the football banquet or the junior-senior play than a month later. A skit on "better babies" will be more effective than "suitable clothes for different types" at the time the parent-teacher association is planning its summer round-up. Undoubtedly there are also psychological times for certain types of educational publicity, such as serving a meal to the school board as one step in showing the school officials and teachers that the department has a program which is being seriously handicapped by lunches for visiting teams or absence from class for play practices or basket ball games.

Certain types of publicity fit best with certain mediums. Certain groups can be reached more easily in one way than another.

Certain occasions call for one kind of material where another would be most ineffective. The medium should be adapted to the group, the occasion, the time, and the type of publicity. Whatever is told should be true and so presented as not to be misleading in any way. A lay group needs a different presentation from a school group. There should be no attempt to tell everything. The center of interest should stand out as in an etching with no attempt to fill in all the details. Some things may be left to the imagination; others, to be told the next time. The study of reliable advertising, good commercial displays, and well-written feature articles will be helpful in planning ways of publicizing the department.

Frequently, the significance of what is being done in home economics is taken for granted by both teacher and students. Frequently, also, when shown to other people, the results are presented merely as things done. No effort is made to show how the activities fit into a program. The students can do a great deal to help in educating others in the school and outside if they themselves see clearly the underlying purpose. "This is a balanced meal, costing seventeen cents, which Mary and I prepared in forty minutes," means a great deal more to the principal than "See what we cooked today." Statements such as, "We are experimenting with fat in cakes; this one has butter and the other a vegetable fat. Tomorrow we are creaming the fat in one and melting it in the other," point to simple experimentation which will recommend itself to any scientifically minded person.

A bulletin board especially for exhibit purposes is decidedly worth while. If the department is isolated or the school very large, a bulletin board or exhibit case in a main corridor, the library, or principal's office will be more useful than outside the department. Students should share in the use made of these agencies for informing others of the work of the department. The nature of the material which may be used either on a bulletin board or in a display case is unlimited.

Parents should be invited to visit the classes. Mothers especially should be urged to come at a regular class period. The girls may be interested in having them come a few at a time as special guests to see a normal day in the department. Individual and home projects offer an opportunity to show another side of the work. The

principal, superintendent, and teachers should be invited to visit the work. Students should be urged to see what others are doing and to invite people to see their work. Mothers may be invited to visit the projects of other pupils.

Many people cannot give enough time to getting acquainted with the work to get a really comprehensive picture of it. For them especially, the department may plan special programs or special days. An open house in connection with some other school activity which is going to bring people to school is one way. Students may act as hostesses, showing the people through in small groups. Having a girl take visitors all the way through is usually more effective than allowing them to find their way about or having them pass from one person to another. The open house may be in connection with a special meeting, a play or program, an out-of-town assembly speaker, or an art exhibit. The father-son banquet or the father-mother-son-daughter night, put on jointly by agriculture and home economics classes, may afford an excellent opportunity for showing the work of the department.

Special programs may be utilized to acquaint people with the work of the department. Assembly programs afford a fine opportunity to get over certain points. Whatever it is should be short, clear, and well done. It should center around one or two points. It may be an exhibit of work done, as a fashion show or a playlet, as a skit on manners. It may be the well-dressed girl and the one dressed in bad taste going to school, to church, and to a party. Plans may be made for a talk on home economics by a special speaker or by some one from another field who has talked to the home economics class. A lawyer, after presenting information concerning laws affecting the home, marriage, and children to a home economics class, may be asked to give certain parts of his talk to the whole student body. He can be introduced by a member of the class who tells briefly what the class has been studying before presenting the special speaker. A doctor could be asked to tell how society safeguards the health of the family.

Short features which might be given in connection with other activities are either a fashion show of children's clothes between the acts of a play or short skits featuring various phases of the work. Frequently there is opportunity to appear on the program

of local civic and social clubs. Short, snappy, illustrated talks by several girls are more effective than one girl's using the whole time. An entire evening's entertainment is possible. A number of one-act plays and a few plays long enough for an entire program are available. The short ones are better for publicity. More different points can be presented in this way. Between the acts, special features showing the actual work of the department will add interest.

Exhibits are a good medium for publicity. Exhibits in downtown store windows may be quite effective. Storekeepers are usually very willing to allow space. Such exhibits may be of two types. One kind will utilize the goods of the store, the home economics class selecting and arranging them. Such exhibits may be a schoolgirl's bedroom or a convenient kitchen in a furniture store, a schoolgirl's wardrobe in a department store. An exhibit may be a combination of school products and store goods, cotton dresses made at school and piece goods suitable for school dresses, refinished furniture and paints. It may be an exhibit entirely of school products, occupying a corner or an end of a display window, school-made garments for children or school-canned foods. Placards should tell simply and clearly the story and should give proper credit for the work.

The exhibit at school offers a different medium for educating the public. In some communities the local and county fairs are a good way to get publicity. Materials for exhibits may be put into three groups: the finished work of the class, as dresses, refinished furniture, cooked food; exhibits showing selection or arrangement, as a child's play corner, a convenient kitchen; and demonstrations of work being carried on, as making a boy's suit out of father's, spraying paint on furniture, weighing and measuring children. The complete exhibit may combine these three types.

In any kind of exhibit certain general points should be kept in mind if the results are to be successful. An important factor is the amount of space available both for the exhibit and for those viewing it. If the audience must keep moving, the kind of exhibit is limited. The story told by any part of the exhibit should stand out at a glance. The printed words of explanation should be reduced to a minimum and should be of such a size and so placed

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CHAPTER XXIV

THE GROWING TEACHER

The good home economics program is always the work of a growing teacher. Most teachers who enter the profession today have completed a four-year, teacher-education curriculum. Subject-matter has been acquired; new techniques learned; habits, attitudes, and ideals formed. This will have been largely a period of formal education, often closely directed and supervised. If it has been good preparation, the teacher will realize that her education for teaching is only well begun. What happens next, however, will be largely in her hands. All around her will be opportunities for learning, people willing to teach her things they know, experiences hers for the taking. She, however, must take the initiative in securing these values.

The teacher who sincerely wants to do her job better and to know more about her field, who is willing to check constantly both her practices and her knowledge for their value in reaching the goals set up, who desires to modify her teaching in the light of new needs and new findings, who would make her own life richer and more satisfying, has made a good beginning toward continuing her own growth. The home economics teacher seems to have more opportunities close at hand for learning than teachers in other fields. The homemaker has much to teach her, and homes are on every side. The shopkeeper can contribute to her knowledge of values, brands, style, goods of every kind. The newspapers and women's magazines carry information of household products, dress, methods of work, financing the home, and rearing of children. Observation of behavior of adults as well as of children is a rich source of material for teaching family relationships and child development. The possibilities for learning are without end.

Materials contributing to the growth of the teacher may be grouped roughly into three general classes: those which add to her techniques either of teaching procedures or of skills in home-

making activities, those which supplement her technical or professional knowledge through new findings and experiences, and those which enrich her own living as a person. Obviously these are not separate and distinct materials. In each group the learning acquired may be specific things she wishes or needs to teach; or it may contribute to that fund of material commonly spoken of as "background," which adds to understanding and appreciation of life as well as education and increases the scope of her horizon, but which is not passed on directly to the pupils. The result in learning for the teacher may be changed ideals, attitudes, standards of value, new behavior patterns, or abilities in both her personal living and her teaching.

Opportunities on the Job

A best way for every one to do a thing is rare. This applies both to homemaking activities and to teaching procedures. Certain conditions may cause one way of doing to be best at that time or for that person. A girl, ready to put in sleeves, asked the teacher the best way to do it. Another girl said that she didn't see how there could be a best way, that the kind of material, the kind of sleeve, and how well one could sew would help determine the best way to put in sleeves at that time.

Pupils will know procedures that are different from the teacher's. Their mothers will know others. Just as the teacher asks the girl who objects to the school's way because it is different from her mother's to try it in order that she may know two ways from which to choose, so will she be open-minded to what the students and their mothers can teach her. The classes will be encouraged to bring new recipes, new facts, different ways of carrying on home activities. Some of this material will contribute to her store of knowledge. Some will be worth while in helping her to acquire skill in judging techniques and information. Some will be proved wrong or worthless. Some teachers decide on the procedure to be used and tell the class what to do and how to do it, and some teachers encourage questioning and contributions from the class. Some are willing to learn with the class; others are afraid to admit they do not know.

Shopkeepers can give the teacher information about fabrics, color, design, manufacture, brands, packaged goods, furniture construction, utensils, leather goods. Not all will know the same things, but most of them will know something along some line which the teacher does not know. From the sales person who really knows, she will acquire a fund of information. From others she may secure sales points, misleading statements, misinformation, thus adding to her basic material as to what to teach the consumer about buying. Families with different cultural or racial patterns have much to give: different social customs, ways of cooking, attitudes toward family life and rearing children. Such contributions lead to breadth of view and greater sympathy and understanding on the part of the class members and of the teacher.

The habit of evaluating her teaching will contribute much to growth of the teacher. Questions which she could well ask herself are: What did the pupils learn today? How can the results be measured? If the goals were not reached, was it lack of preparation on my part or asking too much of the pupils at that time? Was this the most important thing to teach? Did the pupils progress through guidance or dictation? Was it their problem or mine? Was learning sacrificed in any way to getting a good product? Will the pupils be more independent, more resourceful, better able to direct their own learning in the next class problem, in out-of-school activities? Was the learning organized into fundamental principles? Have the pupils learned it in such a way as to use in other experiences? The teacher will think of other questions she will want to ask. No teacher will ask herself all these questions about any one day's work. The habit, however, of critically evaluating one's teaching, of seeing both the strong points and the weaknesses and searching for remedies for weaknesses and better ways of doing the good things, is well worth acquiring. Ability to guide one's growth along lines worth while is one of the most important attainments for either pupil or teacher.

The job itself may be extended. The teacher may teach an adult class, finding stimulation in meeting the needs of a group which does not have to come to school. She may seek occasions to work with other teachers for the achieving of ends in which they are both interested. Agencies within the community also offer opportunities

for engaging in joint enterprises. Visiting in the homes of the pupils, getting to know the families of students, and seeing how they meet the problems of home living will contribute to her growth. Most of these experiences are common to teachers in vocational programs. Other teachers will find them worth while as well. Some teachers need to seek a new job. They have gotten from the one they hold most of what it offers in the way of growth. Many jobs, however, have possibilities that teachers have not yet explored.

Every school system has teachers who are better than others. Some are more successful in getting creative work done; others, in leading class discussion or in conducting laboratory work so that provision is made for individual differences; still others, in getting pupils to bring problems to class for solving or in pupil-teacher relationships. All teaching has much more in common than many home economics teachers realize. The area which can properly be called "special methods in home economics" is without doubt very limited. The growing teacher will then look to all good teachers for help. Some of this will be secured through observation as to how another teacher handles situations; some of it, in casual conversation or in staff meetings; some of it, by asking for help.

One teacher is much interested in measurement. Regardless of the field, such a person can help the home economics teacher by citing references, criticizing tests prepared, and assisting in interpreting the results. Some beginning teachers have little difficulty in testing what the pupils have learned but are unable to diagnose the results; they know only that pupils have or have not learned. The science teacher may be able to give help in recognizing fundamental science principles in different homemaking activities. Such help is usually available for the asking but is rarely offered unless sought.

Just as each school system has its successful teachers from the standpoint of instructional accomplishment, so has it those who stand well with the administrative officers and the community but who may not be doing a good teaching job. The teacher who wants to do a sound piece of work is inclined to make light of that group. It is worth while, however, to look for the cause of the

popularity and see what part of it offers a lesson to the growing teacher. The desirable quality may be being friendly with the patrons, cooperating with the principal, offering to do extra jobs, always being on time with duties assigned, being interested in the activities of other teachers, showing sympathy with the pupils' problems, making a special effort to meet the parents. Insincerity is not to be encouraged, but some teachers are so busy with their immediate job that they fail to see it in relation to the work of others. Some teachers seem to distrust their co-workers who are happy in their work, who have time to play, and who like the people in the community. There is nothing inconsistent in developing an agreeable personality, in being a charming person and a good teacher. Above a certain level of knowledge of subject matter and ability to teach, increased success will come to the person who has the more pleasing personality, the more likable qualities.

The principal and superintendent can be of great assistance to a teacher. The beginning teacher's most serious problems are those of organization and management; of fitting all the jobs needing attention into a working system; of evaluating the demands made upon her and the program; and of adjusting to her new relationship as teacher, especially at the secondary level, and of fitting her social conduct to the standards of the community. The problems are hers; no one else can solve them for her; but an administrative officer, concerned with the development and success of teachers, can be of great help after she has thought her way through to tentative solutions. He should also have help to give in setting up a program of work and in making general plans. The principal who is really a supervisory principal will go much further in helping with instructional problems, visiting classes, criticizing constructively teaching plans, teaching and testing procedures, pointing the way to improvement. The teacher should ask for this help.

Supervision is available to many home economics teachers today. The supervisor's job should be seen both by the teacher and the supervisor as one of teacher education. Unless pupils are better taught because of her work, she has no job; and since she does not teach classes, her work is to teach teachers, to help them grow so

that in turn the pupils grow. The teacher should look to the supervisor for help in improving teaching conditions; for evaluation and constructive criticism of present procedures; for criticism of proposed activities; for suggestions of new ways of doing things; for suggestions concerning new fields of study, new learning needed, and where it may be secured.

The teacher should see the supervisor as a co-worker in a joint enterprise, a person from whom she seeks help. Different teachers have different attitudes toward supervision, just as different supervisors have different attitudes toward their job. The growing teacher has a list of situations to be discussed, tells what she has done (seeking criticism of her procedures), asks what other teachers are doing, and tries out suggestions given her. She attempts to solve her problems but recognizes weaknesses and wants to improve. She accepts the responsibility for the results of her teaching but endeavors to find ways of getting better results next time. She is interested in the best ways of doing things and does not see criticism as a personal issue. She can look at a problem objectively and does not feel called upon to defend any procedure solely because it is hers.

The wise teacher studies the people connected with the school system and evaluates the contribution each may make to her growth. It must be recognized that part of the value of this contribution depends upon the other person's attitude toward giving help. The principal who sees his job as maintaining good order and avoiding friction between the school and parents may have little to give beyond providing a quiet atmosphere in which to work. The superintendent who sees his job as one of financing the school or playing politics with the influential powers in order to keep his job has not time, vision, or ability to help a teacher. The supervisor who inspects merely, checks on the condition of the department, looks over the garments made, comes to the dinner prepared for the school board, and who says she can tell the kind of teaching being done by an hour spent at an exhibit of the work is not going to contribute much to teacher development. Unfortunate, indeed, is the growing teacher whose lot falls among leaders such as these. Even more unfortunate is the teacher who

needs outside stimulation to awaken her to the need for continued growth and to the opportunities around her.

Professional Meetings and Organizations

Many provisions are made for teachers to get together to discuss their problems. Some school systems have regular staff meetings. Many different uses are made of this time. Some offer little more than a time and place for announcements, most of which could have been posted or sent to teachers as a special bulletin. Some center around discussion of problems of concern to a limited group. Others are used as opportunities for the person in charge to present his views on current topics or to talk about his hobby or to tell the teachers what he wants done. Time used for meetings such as these counts heavily on the debit side of teacher growth.

Fortunately, however, there is another kind of meeting—the one concerned with a study of vital problems, the needs of the community and how the school can best serve them, ways of acquainting the public with the needs of the school and its program, a study of new educational procedures, the contribution of so-called extra-curricular activities, the development of a program of evaluation. The home economics teacher will receive valuable help from the study of all such problems.

Professional organizations have assumed a more important place in the progress of education than most beginning teachers realize. It is decidedly worth while to find out the work of these various organizations in the past and their points of emphasis now. Attendance at meetings, district, state, and national, is valuable, both for the discussions presented and for getting acquainted with professional people having similar interests. Even more important, however, is to ally oneself with the program being fostered through membership; through active support of and cooperation with the activities during the entire year; and through familiarity with the publications, special bulletins, and journals. Such affiliations offer opportunity to contribute to studies being made, experiments being conducted, committee work going on. Education needs intelligent and informed workers at every level of experience and position, and in no field more than in home economics.

Many states have made provision for state and district conferences for home economics teachers. Some conferences are held during the summer and vary in length from a few days to a few weeks. The short conference held before school begins or during the early fall is largely for the purpose of projecting a program, giving instruction concerning some new point of emphasis, discussing problems of the previous year. A conference held during the latter part of the year is usually to check progress and discuss current problems. The longer period of study, extending over two or more weeks, is usually given to organized instructional work. Sometimes one program of study is planned for the entire group; in other cases several units are set up and the teacher selects according to her special needs and interests. Both types of programs are usually planned jointly by leaders and participants with the needs of teachers in mind. The teacher who prepares herself for such conferences by participating in planning, by thinking through her needs, by being willing to present her difficulties for discussion, and by seeking opportunities to talk with other teachers concerning their work, will get much from such meetings. Education is not a passive process for teachers any more than it is for students.

Growing in Knowledge and Experience

No teacher could learn and have at her immediate command all the information she will need. In addition, new points of view on homemaking as well as on teaching procedures will be developed constantly. New discoveries, new facts, and new data will be available. The wise teacher knows when she does not know and searches for the information needed from reliable sources. Inaccuracies of subject matter on the part of the teacher point almost always to a lack of respect for the subject being taught; the teacher feels that it doesn't make any difference. Access to reliable sources for checking information or for adding to knowledge of subject matter and procedures is essential. The necessity for keeping in touch with new developments both in home economics and in teaching demands the reading both of new books and of professional magazines along various lines.

The teaching of home economics is built on sound principles of

general education. The growing teacher must be alert to developments in the large field of education and to their implications in teaching home economics. Professional reading should extend to basic material in the whole area of education. The home economics teacher is concerned also with the social and economic changes in society and with changes in home and family life. She is also concerned with new knowledge in regard to human growth and adjustment. The teacher's reading should include material in all these fields. Professional magazines carry reviews of new professional books; other magazines, of books of other types. A few books should be purchased each year. Others, not available locally, may be borrowed from libraries by paying the carriage charges. The habit of reading and study is one to be encouraged. Never before has the serious study of social problems been so important for teachers in all fields as it is today.

Many young women preparing to teach home economics have had limited homemaking experience. Even though they have helped at home, it has been more or less under the direction of an adult or else the mother has taught daughter her way of doing. The teacher needs to know more than one way. In addition, new ways are being developed constantly. College preparation in home economics deals both with theory and its application to specific situations, but few programs as now set up provide opportunities for the developing of many abilities to the skill level or for trying out a great variety of procedures. During the teacher-preparation period, experiences should be sought which develop techniques. They may be found at home during vacation periods, in the home-management house, and in caring for one's room and clothing. Even after they have utilized all such opportunities, most home economics teachers will still be short in techniques.

The family may not can fruit and vegetables, or, if mother does, she may always use tin cans or can in the oven since she has gotten the electric stove. The homemaker may decide on a method which suits her conditions best; the teacher cannot. She needs to know the open-kettle method with its values and limitations, the hot-water and steam-pressure methods, oven-canning, drying, jelly making with and without artificial pectin; and knowledge based on first-hand experiencing is safest for her purpose. She

needs skill in baking breads, cakes, and pastries; in making salad dressing; in cooking meals; and in preparing desserts.

Styles of dresses change, bringing new problems in altering patterns, in cutting and fitting, in selecting material for different styles. Some of the new materials present special problems for the amateur. Children's clothing has a style and technique of making all its own. The growing teacher does some sewing during the summer, using new materials and new patterns. She sews not only for herself, but for her mother, fat Mrs. Jones down the street, six-year-old Sally, and three-year-old Jimmie next door. The depression taught people that they could rip and turn and dye, and the alert teacher sought opportunities to get experience along these lines. The war and its demands for eliminating waste, for substituting less commonly used materials for the usual ones, and for releasing time and energy and money for defense measures calls for new knowledge and new experience.

This should not be interpreted to mean that a teacher never will try in class or allow the pupils to try out things she cannot do. It means, however, that she gains experience whenever she can, thus saving time in guiding pupils in solving problems and in foreseeing difficulties so that there is not too much of the trial-and-error procedure. It also means that, having shown her ability to do well in some areas, she can then afford to say to a class that she is not familiar with the particular procedure being discussed but that they can learn it together, or that she is not particularly skilful in a certain operation but that she can show how it is done and they can develop skill together.

Home economics draws from so many areas of subject matter and activities and in turn contributes to so many situations of living that materials which will promote teacher growth may be found on every side. It is well worth while to form habits of observing human behavior, looking for causes, following actions through to resulting effects, searching for remedies for undesirable behavior. All this will add to the store of material for child development and relationship units as well as contribute to the teacher's ability in working with people. Another rich store of material is to be found in the way people carry on their homemaking activities: the techniques of doing the work, the way some

people make plans and others worry along without them, things which some families call luxuries and others necessities, the manner in which people settle problems, the way in which some families are ruled by one of their members, the houses people buy, the furnishings they select, and the way in which they are used and cared for, deficiencies in training for homemaking, habits of living, standards of sanitation and screening, the conditions of yards. There is no end to this source of material.

A third fertile source is the commercial field: the observation of people spending money, selecting food in public eating places, buying clothes, the standards for handling food in stores and markets, the appeal made by store windows, magazine advertisements, the playing up of popular trends, new knowledge in science, fashions in advertising and magazine articles. The good teacher makes herself a part of the community, participates in its life. She seeks to know those persons and agencies whose interests are similar to hers, the goals they are seeking which concern her as a person and/or teacher.

Although no study can quite take the place of organized work, too many teachers think of it as the only kind of study. The stimulus of matching wits with other students in a discussion group, of delving into new fields, of rechecking or bringing subject matter up to date, of having time to think through problems is of untold value. Such study, however, should have a goal in view, serve a need, not be just to get a higher degree or to secure a preferred rating in a school system.

Extension courses are now available to most teachers during the school year. Many of these offerings are of immediate or deferred value to the home economics teacher. Any good course in general education can be of help if the instructor is interested and willing for the teacher to apply her thinking to her special field. Included in such courses are fundamental principles of teaching, extra-curricular activities, and measurement. Many general-subject-matter courses outside the area of home economics are of value—industrial history, art, science, sociology, economics, oral and written English, psychology, mental hygiene, ethics, health. In addition, subjects of general value broaden the horizon. One teacher may wish to study French; another, music; another, Eng-

lish prose or the American drama. It is well every now and then to go entirely outside one's field.

Correspondence courses are available in some lines. Some of these courses give credit; others do not. Obviously, the type of material which can be handled in this manner is limited. Subjects in which techniques are to be developed or in which discussion is needed to get different points of view are not suited to correspondence work. Limitations of library facilities may interfere with the value of such a course. The radio is increasing the opportunity for organized study, and this field should be investigated by the home economics teacher.

Summer schools offer many opportunities for study. The teacher may supplement her training along a certain line, study a new subject, go in for new findings in a certain phase of work, delve deeper into a field in which she thinks she might like to specialize later. Shopping around in the first study after getting a baccalaureate degree is not to be discouraged. One teacher feels a shortage in her art training and searches for the institution and instructor who can supply her needs. Another has had little nursery-school contact and hunts for a well-organized center. A third is interested in the study of the family, thinks she would like to be a social worker, and spends three months in a school for social work. Out of these experiences some teachers will find the place and the area in which to specialize and go wholeheartedly after what they want. Others will decide that what they need is well-rounded study rather than specialization. The shopping around was not wasted; it paid for itself in knowledge gained and in guidance. The year of study offers possibilities not to be found in any other way. There is time to specialize in a field in which interest has been developed, to bring one's whole training up to date, to work on a special problem, to think problems through to a solution, to develop techniques of research. Plans for organized study should be a part of every teacher's program for growth. In selecting a place to study, the teacher should consider what she may learn from the community as well as the institution. The experience may be used to get acquainted with another section of the country or a city. Such contacts should be thought of as secondary, however.

Some teachers will find it worth while to seek experiences entirely outside the school environment. Travel has many values, both personal and professional. It is desirable for everyone to learn how other people live and to see other parts of the country, but it is especially important for the teacher to have these experiences. A sight-seeing trip has its values, giving one a bird's-eye view of an unfamiliar city or section of this country or of other countries. Not all traveling should be of this type, however. Other values are to be gained by staying in one place or section long enough to absorb some of its spirit, to know its people, and to feel at home in the community. Only in this way can people really understand each other. The person who has never lived in the country or a small village will find it worth while to spend a summer there participating in all the activities such living entails.

Mention has been made of the need for home economics teachers to extend their homemaking experience and to develop skills and techniques in various housekeeping activities. Most teachers will find it valuable to get experience in managing a home with small children over a period of weeks. Other types of work experience should also be sought—employment in a factory, shop, office, or store—living on the money such jobs pay. Such experiences will give teachers an appreciation of the problems people in other types of jobs face in earning a living and in living on what they earn. Vacations may be used for such experiences. A few colleges in their home economics-education curriculums require work experiences during one or two vacations. Another type of work experience is open to the home economics teacher—a type for which her preparation and experience have prepared her. Such jobs are in the field of social service; home demonstration work; in connection with federal agencies, such as farm security, resettlement, and other similar projects; and business enterprises, such as public utilities, food manufacturing and distribution, stores, and hotels.

Personal qualities have much to do with success in teaching as well as success in living. The teacher and student in training will do well to study other people both in and out of teaching for those qualities that seem desirable, that contribute to happiness —living a satisfying life; achieving pleasant relationships with other people, students, fellow workers, persons outside school.

Qualities that are lacking but desired may be developed by the teacher in the same way as suggested for their development in the pupils.[1] Most teachers can count on certain qualities as contributing to success and happiness in teaching. These qualities of the teacher and her personal adjustment were discussed in an earlier chapter.[2] Each teacher should study the problem and make her own list. As she studies lists prepared by others, certain qualities will be seen as recurring: open-mindedness, thoughtfulness, fair-mindedness, interest in other people, honesty. The teacher will find also that personal mannerisms and habits interfere with success in teaching: a voice that is annoying, nervous gestures, carelessness in dress and personal hygiene. The home economics teacher has an added responsibility to live home economics, to show by example that it is a functioning field.

Setting Up a Program for Continuing Growth

Ability to analyze one's work, to see shortcomings and to evaluate accomplishments clearly, is much to be desired. Many rating cards have been worked out. Some are for the use of the employing system in considering promotions, salary increases, or dismissals. These are usually of little value to the teacher who is planning a program for continuing growth. On a higher level are those for the joint use of the teacher and the principal or supervisor in checking progress. Others have been prepared for self-rating by the teacher. Of greatest value is the one prepared by the teacher. The teacher who wishes to make one to rate herself will study those prepared by others and discuss points with other people. She may even wish to talk over her own evaluation of her work with others. Points to which she will give consideration will include personal qualities; knowledge of subject matter and teaching techniques; such abilities as to direct others in development, to evaluate demands and place them in proper perspective, to make and carry out a program, to measure and evaluate the results of instruction, to work with others, and attitudes of open-mindedness to new learning and a willingness to re-evaluate goals as conditions

[1] See pp. 113-116.
[2] See pp. 34-41.

change. The teacher must become conscious of her need for study, for new knowledge and new experience.

Critical self-analysis of one's work, personal qualities, training, and experience for doing the job; evaluation of the opportunities for growth; setting up a well-balanced, attainable program of improvement; and the continued, consistent working at it are essential steps for the teacher who would get the fullest measure both of happiness and success in doing an increasingly better piece of work. Teaching is recognized as a fine medium of self-expression in proportion as the individual becomes a good teacher. The philosophy of education must be constantly reworked, education seen in its broader implications, its relationships to the other social institutions and functions of living perceived. The home economics teacher must see herself as part of the large society, home economics education as part of all education, both being modified with changes in social living. The growing teacher has as her goal growth in democratic living—both in her personal and her professional relationships.

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